

**EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATION:
THE SECONDARY SCHOOL**

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EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION: THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

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FOREWORD

ANY WRITING VENTURE grows from the basic beliefs and assumptions held by the authors. The authors here start with the firm conviction that *secondary school administration is both an art and a science*. The artistic phase of the profession is such an individual thing that the "recipe-book" or "how-to-do-it" approach is both inappropriate and misleading in a volume dedicated to improving leadership through effective secondary school administration. Thus, although the authors have tried to provide suggestions, cases, and other illustrative material in the field of techniques, the core of this book concerns concepts. The authors are not nearly so concerned with the "how" of administration as they are with the "what." Their aim is to make clear the task of the secondary school administrator, the problems that surround him as he performs this task, and the processes he uses as he meets the problems and engages in the business of administration.

The authors hope that this book will not only be of value to the prospective and untried principal, but will also provide guidance and assistance to the experienced administrator as he attempts to improve his performance as a secondary school principal. In addition, the secondary school teacher should find much of interest and value here concerning his role as a member of the professional team that makes up the staff of a secondary school.

The authors believe that the principal of a secondary school is an educational administrator with many of those administrative problems faced by a superintendent of schools, an elementary school principal, or any other administrator. In writing this book, they have drawn heavily upon writings and research in the general field of educational administration and, indeed, in the over-all field of administration. The administrative process, the influence of the situation upon administrative behavior, and the necessity of working with and understanding people are factors as important to the secondary school administrator as to the leader in government or to the business executive. The reader will note that although illustrative material is drawn from the secondary school setting, the theme is administrative leadership.

The authors also believe that before an individual attempts to master the techniques of a job, he should analyze both the job and himself to determine if the two seem compatible. They do not assume, therefore, that every reader of this book is convinced that he should be a secondary school principal, and much of their effort is to provide material that will assist the reader to appraise himself as a prospective administrator. It is as important to help a person discover that he is not interested in a profession as it is to help others improve themselves in a profession to which they are fitted.

The quality of educational leadership is the key factor in determining the quality of the educational enterprise. The secondary school in America today has captured public interest and concern as perhaps never before in the history of any nation. The secondary school is said by some to be the agency that will determine the success or failure of American democracy in a world struggling to gain peace amid great ideological conflicts. The need for dedicated, intelligent, imaginative, and dynamic leadership in secondary education is apparent.

This volume is organized into four parts. Admittedly, such a division is artificial at best and misleading at worst. As the authors discuss the job, the tasks, the person, and the profession, they have constantly tried to show the inter-relationships among these divisions. This has led to some duplication of material from time to time, but this duplication seems less of an evil than does a loss of the over-all view of administration.

Any attempt to acknowledge those who have assisted in the preparation of this book is most difficult. Each author has served as a secondary school principal, and much of the material here has been contributed by wise and understanding secondary school teachers and students with whom they have been associated. They have also each taught university courses for both prospective and experienced secondary school teachers and administrators, and have always found themselves playing the dual role of teacher and learner in these classes. These contributions must go unacknowledged except in this general way.

The authors are indebted to Dr. Hugh Laughlin, of The Ohio State University, for his critical examination of the manuscript and his valuable suggestions for improvement. Lela Weaver, Secretary in the Center for Educational Administration at The Ohio State University, assisted in many ways in the preparation of the material for publication. For this help, the authors are also grateful.

In the last analysis, and in spite of the many who have contributed

to this volume, it is the authors who must accept responsibility for what is found herein. It is their hope that those who use this book will find it of assistance as they strive for growth and improvement in one of the most important professions in the world-educational administration.

John E. Corbally, Jr.
T. J. Jensen
W. Frederick Staub

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**EDUCATIONAL
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part one

THE JOB

PART ONE PRESENTS, in broad focus, the job of secondary school administration. Chapter 1 relates incidents illustrative of happenings in today's secondary schools. Chapter 2 draws the setting of secondary school administration, and discusses the historical background and its impact on the current scene. Chapter 3 gives the theme of leadership to which the authors subscribe. *Its leadership concepts, in a very real sense, provide the central girding for the entire book.* Chapter 4 presents an over-all view of the major task areas in which the secondary school administrator works—instructional leadership, staff personnel, pupil personnel, finance and facilities management, and school-community relations. It concludes with a discussion of organization, a vital administrative skill.

INCIDENTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

THOSE WHO ANTICIPATE A CAREER in secondary school administration might well begin by asking themselves two questions: *Do I like, and enjoy working with, people?* Am I challenged to action when confronted by problems? Stop reading here if your answer is "No" to either of these questions, for to be an administrator of a secondary school under these circumstances would be frustrating to you and dispiriting to those with whom you might work. The corridors and classrooms of modern secondary schools are humming with activity, and the sound is not pleasant to the *introverted, the cynical, or the misanthropic*. The mix that results from playing the best possible organized learning experiences for the teen-age pupil against the moving backdrop of his now volatile, now grimly earnest nature is shot through with problems. Not to be stimulated by these problems is never to know the challenge of secondary school administration.

At almost any given point in time it might appear that a secondary school principal's life is compounded of seemingly disconnected problem situations—a telephone rings and a parent reports that her son's shirt was torn during an initiation skirmish, the office door opens and a student

requests permission to change his schedule, it is 3:30, and the principal heads for the faculty meeting. The problems of the moment seem always to be there, springing from the interactions of the day. Lest solutions to these problems be thumbs hastily applied to a leaking dike, however, the administrator needs to think, by himself and with others, about plans that might forestall certain kinds of problems. But by this process other broad-based problems are created. To solve both kinds, a disposition to do so and a systematic approach are required. In this book, the authors present the *major task areas of the secondary school administrator*, the areas in which most of his problems arise, and some of the approaches he may find helpful as he responds to the unique challenge of each of them.

Incidents involving secondary school administration follow. This slice-of-life material is presented in open-ended fashion, purposely, because no two problems and no two solutions ever seem to be exactly the same. Each reader is invited to provide his own ending to the story, but most important, it is our hope that the material will stimulate an analysis of the problems and dynamics inherent in each episode. The questions raised when we leave each incident are but illustrative of those that might occur to the reader.

SOME INCIDENTS

The Follow-Up Study

Bob Franklin picked up his coffee cup and stared thoughtfully at the row of figures before him. For several nights now he had gone to the desk shortly after dinner. There, with some excitement, he had opened the day's mail and accumulated a mounting stack of returned questionnaires. Near the middle of his master's program in educational administration, he had chosen to make a follow-up study of graduates, during the past five years, of Reynold's Grove High School, where he was serving his third year as principal. A major section of the questionnaire had been constructed to give the respondents a chance to react to the curriculum they had followed in the light of the perspective they had gained since graduation. From the replies, Bob Franklin hoped to amass data that would give direction to further curriculum development.

Reynold's Grove, with a population of 900, was the largest of several villages that dotted the countryside beyond the rim of Graham, an industrial city of 45,000. Formerly populated predominantly by shopkeepers, retired farmers, and employees of the village's two small indus-

tries, the creamery and the foundry, Reynold's Grove suddenly began to grow. The road that threaded through the hills to Graham, nine miles away, afforded choice building sites, and houses began to sprout in profusion. Occupying them, in the main, were supervisory and middle-management personnel from the industries of Graham. Although outside the corporation limits of the village, the homes were in the Reynold's Grove School District, and each year several new pupils came from them to either the elementary or high school.

In the village itself, more and more of the city's industrial workers appeared, attracted by the availability of older but well-built houses in the lower price brackets. Two years ago, shortly after Bob Franklin had been employed as principal, the board of education requested approval of a bond issue for the building of a new high school. When the voters approved the request, Virgil Kennedy, the district's superintendent, asked Bob to *begin an assessment of the current program in order to recommend changes for the program of the new school.*

In breaking down his information for purposes of analysis, he had divided the respondents into college and noncollege groups. The table he was developing tonight dealt with reactions of the college respondents to the English program of the high school. He had concluded that section of the questionnaire with an open-ended item, "What suggestions do you have for the improvement of the English program?" The reactions were telling a consistent story: more work in theme writing, a better grounding in grammar, crack-down on the spelling requirements.

As he lit his pipe, Bob thought, "These will be easy enough to work into the thesis, but doing something about them will be another matter." Ethel Patton, wife of the editor of Reynold's Grove's weekly newspaper and English teacher at the high school for the past fifteen years, was the source of the ruffled thought. A long-time resident of the village, she was typical of about half of the teachers on the staff. Working primarily to bring in a comfortable second income and to combat boredom, this group did not get excited very easily about the professional problems of education. Instead, their own families, social affairs of the village, and the latest conversation piece around the school gave them more concern. Teaching in Reynold's Grove was convenient, and no serious thought was directed to the possibility of moving elsewhere. The other half of the staff was composed primarily of young teachers in their first year or two of professional experience. After gaining experience, this group usually moved out, attracted by systems with better salary schedules. Because of

this mobility factor, Bob found that a major share of his time during the past two years had been spent with this inexperienced group. As a consequence of these conditions, curriculum development proceeded rather slowly.

If the recommended changes in the English program were to be effected, something would have to be done concerning Ethel Patton. Fond of literature and dramatics, she poured most of her energy into the junior and senior class plays. That grammar concerned her slightly was attested to by the malapropisms and other inaccuracies which dotted her own speech. She carried them off, however, as if they had been made respectable by long-time membership in the family. Consistently, her pupils ranked lower in grammar and spelling sections of achievement tests than they did in other sections of the examination.

"One solution to the problem would be to assign her to ninth and tenth grade English when we move into the new building next year," thought Bob, although he knew she would balk at the idea because she preferred working with the older students. Another deterring factor was that she and her husband often visited socially with Virgil Kennedy, the superintendent, and his wife. Bob Franklin had no doubt but that she had paved the way for her next year's assignment on more than one of those occasions.

"Well, there's no solving that one tonight," reflected Bob, "I'd better watch my own grammar and spelling instead." With that thought, he turned back to his thesis material.

* * *

How much attention, in curriculum appraisal and development, should be paid to the evaluation made of it by the students? To what extent should a course be geared to the needs of college-bound pupils if they do not exist in sufficient number to justify setting up a special class for them? What recommendation should the principal make to the superintendent regarding the work of Ethel Patton? What other sources should a principal tap in making an evaluation of the curriculum?

Frank Wonders Which Way to Turn

Frank stirred uneasily at his desk, as his mind wandered away again from the theme he was trying to write. "Somehow," he thought, "it isn't quite right that I should have to make the choice." As they had already on

several occasions during the morning, the incidents that led to his dilemma paraded once more through his mind.

Last May, near the end of Frank's junior year, Mr. Farley, faculty adviser to the yearbook staff, had asked him to be editor-in-chief. When Frank had accepted the responsibility, his schedule was arranged so that the last period of the day would be available for his editorial duties. Accordingly, all others of the yearbook staff who held major assignments had a similar arrangement. Under Mr. Farley's direction, a work schedule had been blocked out, the theme had been selected, and now, in the last week in February, much needed to be done to prepare for meeting the printer's deadline. Frank's work, as editor, stepped up in its demands.

Each year at Fairfield High School, the senior class had a tradition of writing, directing, and presenting a variety show. Revenue from this production financed most of the senior class expenses. During the summer, Frank wrote a script. In November, when scripts were submitted to Miss Carson, the faculty adviser, he was delighted to have his chosen. Miss Carson and the senior committee that worked with her on this production offered Frank the student directorship. At that time, he was somewhat uneasy about getting himself overcommitted, particularly since he knew that he was in the running for senior scholastic honors. All through school, however, he had carried a heavy schedule reasonably comfortably, and he had found the diversity to be stimulating. Before he accepted the directorship he had discussed it with Mr. Farley, who told him that he had no objection if it did not interfere with his editorial responsibilities. When Miss Carson indicated that rehearsals would be held primarily after school and in the evenings, the conflict was seemingly resolved and Frank accepted the directorship. The early work on the variety show presented no particular problem. Casting and other organizational work consumed December and January. In early February, however, the pace accelerated. It became increasingly difficult to find sufficient rehearsal time. With production scheduled for early March, each person involved began to feel the tension of the pace. Most members of the cast were free at 2:00 P.M. as the result of a staggered schedule, which permitted seniors sufficient flexibility to leave at that time for part-time jobs, to participate in athletics on their own time, or to be available for other extracurricular activities. Finally, Miss Carson announced that rehearsals, three times a week, would start at 2:00 P.M. Frank raised an objection to this arrangement, indicating that he had editorial responsibilities with the

yearbook at this time. Miss Carson said that she would speak with Mr. Farley to see if some compromise plan could be worked out.

At 2:00 P.M. the next afternoon, when Frank walked into the yearbook staff meeting, Mr. Farley drew him into his office.

"Frank," he had said, "Miss Carson informed me that she needs you three times a week at 2:00 P.M. You remember I told you that I didn't have any objection to your taking the directorship if it didn't interfere with your editorial work. With our deadline to meet, things are getting to a crucial stage, and if you aren't here to do your work, we'll be in a bad way. I just don't see how I can release you. See if you can work it out with Miss Carson."

That evening, at rehearsal, Frank reported to Miss Carson what Mr. Farley had said to him. She grew visibly annoyed.

"I suggested to him that I'd cut down 2:00 P.M. rehearsals to two a week, as a way of working it out, and I don't see why that isn't all right. You know that this is supposed to be a student production, Frank, and it's too late to work anyone else in in your place. If you don't do it, I'll have to. If Mr. Farley won't compromise, I'm afraid you'll just have to choose between the two."

Frank stared at the incompleted theme, and he knew that he had to make the decision, for Mr. Farley had been similarly annoyed when he related to him the details of his conversation with Miss Carson during *home room period this morning*.

"Maybe you will have to choose, Frank, if there's no other way, but you know how I feel about it."

Frank wondered why Miss Carson and Mr. Farley hadn't worked something out, but he knew, too, from his experiences with both of them, that each was determined. Picking up his pencil, again, Frank decided to see the principal, Mr. Moore, at the end of the period. From previous experience, he had found it helpful to talk things over with him.

"Come in, Frank," said Mr. Moore, looking up from his desk. He knew from the troubled look on Frank's face that something was on his mind. What it was was no mystery, either, for just the period before Ralph Farley had been in his office. "Every year," he had stormed, "she puts me in this same position, and this time I'm not going to give in to her."

* * *

What should Mr. Moore say to Frank? Is Frank at all right when he thought that he shouldn't have to make the choice? Should Mr. Moore

enter into the problem, since both teachers apparently had issued an ultimatum? Should a point system that would limit the number of activities in which students might participate be developed?

A Request for a Transfer

"Mr. Harper," and Linda's voice grew more intense as she continued to speak, "I want to be a nurse, and I need to get as much as possible from this biology course. I don't see how I can, though, if Mr. Chapman won't even let us ask questions about our assignments. May I please be transferred to Miss Wright's class?"

Tom Harper, principal at Ardmore High School, felt weary as he listened to Linda, and he forced a trace of a smile to disguise the feeling. Although she continued to give reasons for making the change, there was really no need for her to supply the details. Tom could have anticipated nearly everything that she was saying. It was near the end of the first six-week period of the year, and at least five other students, all as capable and sincere as Linda, had made a similar request for transfer by relating a similar story.

Mr. Chapman prepared assignment sheets, on which the daily work was designated, a week in advance. Class time was primarily for individual preparations in the biology workbook. When questions arose about the assignments, he would say with increasing irritation, "You'll find what you need to know in the reference books. They're listed at the end of each assignment." Several students also reported that Mr. Chapman spoke very little in class; and that when he did speak he was rather difficult to understand. A further complaint centered around insufficient periods devoted to laboratory work. Several assignments required instead the reproduction of drawings from one or other of the various reference books.

Although Tom Harper was in the first year of his principalship at Ardmore, he had taught there some years before. He knew that what the students were reporting about Sam Chapman and his classes was true, and he knew why. Early the past summer, Sam had suffered a slight stroke. After several weeks of convalescence, he seemed greatly improved and informed the superintendent that he would be able to begin the year on schedule. Sam was two years away from retirement, and he had taught for 32 years at Ardmore. During this span he had been active in many phases of the school's life, although in recent years he had confined himself to teaching his biology classes. When Tom was on the teaching staff at Ard-

more, he got to know Sam quite well and bowled on the same team with him one night a week. From this experience, and from eating lunch with him occasionally, Tom concluded that Sam's army experience in World War I had never quite rubbed off and that he was rather inflexible about what he expected of people and when he expected them to do it.

After the initial two requests for a transfer from Sam Chapman's class, Tom Harper, first indicating to the students that Mr. Chapman had been ill during the summer and probably needed to conserve his strength during the opening weeks of school, talked with Sam about the requests.

"They'll pull that every year, Tom," Sam had said rather brusquely. "Tell them to get to work and they'll be okay."

When Tom Harper had become principal he had determined to cut student transfers to a minimum. From his teaching experience he had remembered that the office counters were lined each period for the first three days. As a teacher it had annoyed him not to be able to stabilize his class roster until these shifts had been made. Accordingly, upon becoming principal he had established the procedure that no transfers would be made during the first three days of classes, and that then they would be considered individually, with the written consent of parents and all teachers involved. This seemed to reduce the quantity of requests considerably, and the staff had indicated its approval of the plan.

Still, the requests came in persistently for transfers from Sam Chapman's classes. Three parents had felt strongly enough about the matter to discuss it with Tom Harper. Each seemed to understand why transfers presented such a problem, and each, too, grew less insistent upon learning of Sam Chapman's recent illness. Tom Harper recognized, though, that unless the situation changed, these explanations would no longer suffice. From his talk with Sam about the matter, he had little to hope for on that score. The problem was further complicated because he knew that the school system did not have a policy about physical examinations. Tom had hesitated to bring the matter to the attention of the superintendent. With Sam so close to retirement, and substitute biology teachers so hard to get, Tom felt that he could predict the response he would get.

Looking up from his desk, Tom Harper said, "Well, Linda . . ."

* * *

Should Tom Harper make a discrete appeal to Linda, a serious and intelligent student, to help make the most of a difficult personnel problem? Should Tom lay aside his personal feeling of regard for Sam Chap-

man and tell him that he must loosen up his classroom procedures? Should the superintendent be informed of the situation? If Sam persisted in his same inflexible pattern, should he be permitted to continue teaching?

The Class Reunion

Although no ashtrays were visible on the desk of John Warner, principal of Coolidge High School, Phil Acton and Marvin Potter lit cigarettes shortly after entering his office. "We're here, John," Phil announced, "to . . ."

John Warner's face muscles twitched with annoyance at the flip familiarity of the pair, as he recalled them as students some ten years ago. Irascible then, they had managed to stay just enough inside the school rules to graduate. Both had indulgent parents who had bought them automobiles when they were still juniors. Too much money had contributed to their irresponsibility. During the past ten years Phil and Marvin had cut a swath in the service club and young country club sets.

". . . make arrangements with you to get the thousand dollars that our class set aside ten years ago for our reunion. Marv and I have been named cochairmen, and we're planning to have a real affair."

"Just a moment, please," John Warner answered, as he moved to one of the filing cabinets, "I'll need to get the ledger." While Phil and Marvin looked around the office searchingly and finally flicked their ashes into a wastebasket, John Warner turned to the pages containing the class financial record.

"Yes, here it is," he resumed, and he placed a finger on the figure that represented the balance of the fund.

"According to the records, though, there is a total of \$731.24 in the class account."

Phil and Marvin rose to their feet swiftly. With more than a trace of anger, Marvin was the first to speak.

"But the class specifically set aside a fund of one thousand dollars to be used for its tenth reunion. It should still be there."

Irritated at the implication, John Warner took a deep breath and reviewed the picture calmly. He explained that when the class had graduated there was a balance of well over one thousand dollars. Bills for expenses of the senior prom, however, were slow in being presented. He produced the vouchers showing that the last of the bills was not paid until the August following the class's graduation.

Phil and Marvin gave the records no more than a cursory glance. Reaching for their hats, they turned to leave the office.

"This is not the first time I've heard of trouble like this," Phil remarked over his shoulder, "and I intend to find out what happened to our thousand dollars." With that they left.

John Warner sat for some time at his desk, shaken by the brief but unexpected encounter. Thinking of the trouble caused by earmarked funds and of the difficulty in getting seniors and their class sponsors to follow good business procedures in the frantic days surrounding graduation exercises, he turned, with some anxiety, to all of the class records and hoped that everything would be complete.

Two days later, when John Warner answered his phone he heard the superintendent, Mr. Harvey, say, "John, this is Jim Harvey. Two fellows, a Phil Acton and a Marvin Potter, have just been in my office. They were mad as hops about some reunion fund of a thousand dollars that their class is supposed to have left in the senior account. I know how these things go, John, so I calmed them down some, but I promised to look into the matter and get in touch with them. Could we . . ."

* * *

Should the high school be the custodian of earmarked funds? What are the public relations implications of a case like this? Assuming that all the records in this case are complete and accurate, what action should be taken toward Phil Acton and Marvin Potter? What accounting and auditing procedures should pertain to high school funds?

A Run of Bad Publicity

It seemed to begin the night of that basketball game, thought Ralph McIntosh, principal of Middlebrook High School. As he sat in his office the week before school was to resume in September, his mind kept returning to some of the events of the previous semester. Each recollection brought a shudder of disquietude. "No doubt about it," he mused, "things surely piled up after that game."

Back in February, Middlebrook was scheduled to play Barton. A rivalry of many years' standing between these teams was intensified by the fact that both of them went into the game undefeated. Anticipating a sellout crowd, Ralph had worked late in his office and had eaten a packed lunch in order to be on hand early to supervise the sale of tickets. A half-hour before the doors were scheduled for opening, however, a crowd of

several hundred people had gathered outside the building. Banging at the doors and elbowing for position, each person seemed to be in surly competition with the others. Ralph had gazed at the sight with dismay, deciding that no matter how bad things became it was still better to open the doors at the announced time rather than let some in early in order to reduce the tension. The next hour was a nightmare. When the doors were opened the mob surged in. Ralph's enjoiner for them to take their time was lost in the onrush. When his glasses were bent and he became ruffled and shouted that the doors would be shut, those who heard him responded with cat calls. Fifteen minutes before the game was due to begin, Red Wyatt, sports editor of the newspaper, was pushed through the door, disheveled and chewing furiously at the split remnant of a cigar. Ralph caught his disdainful scowl as he was swept into the gymnasium. Surcease did not come with the sale of the last available ticket, however. The doors were shut on three or four hundred disgruntled people, many of whom Ralph recognized as steady patrons of past games. His explanation that to sell more tickets on an emergency basis would be a violation of fire regulations and a placing of the players in jeopardy didn't reach the angry fans. He finally gave up trying to explain and pacify. The snatches of the game that he saw did nothing to reduce the tempo, for the score always was tied or the teams separated by no more than one or two points. Most of his time was spent in going from door to door and window to window. Refusing to accept the fact that they would not be able to see the game, many fans tried to force open doors in remote sections of the building. Two windows were broken and an attempt made to gain entrance through them.

What seemed to be the final blow occurred in the last five seconds of the game, when a Barton player deftly scooped the ball away from a confidently dribbling Middlebrook guard and drove half the length of the floor to score the winning points of the game. Every jubilant action of the Barton fans served as a barb to the shocked Middlebrook crowd, which shuffled angrily out of the school.

But the worst incident of all, Ralph McIntosh was not to learn about until even later. As the two teams were showering, one of the Barton players was struck and his nose was broken. In the ensuing investigation, reports were very confusing in reference to who struck whom first. The upshot of the incident, however, was that the Barton coach was furious. A complaint was lodged the next day with the State Commissioner of Athletics, and Middlebrook was put on a year's disciplinary probation for failure to maintain sufficient control. Specifically, the ruling called atten-

tion to the fact that no policeman had been on duty at the game, and that this, among other things, constituted negligence.

In the newspaper accounts of the game and the subsequent probationary action, Red Wyatt, the sports editor, reflected the annoyance he so obviously had felt previously. For several nights afterwards he included in his column letters criticizing the school for its "obvious mismanagement of the ticket situation."

Then came a succession of annoying events throughout the remainder of the year.

In March, a boy cut his hand in a shop accident at the school. He was taken to the emergency room of the hospital and treated. The next day, a reporter called Ralph McIntosh to inquire about it. In the conversation the reporter asked why the paper had not been called earlier. Obliquely, he suggested that the school might have been trying to "cover up" another embarrassing incident. The article, although written with a straight news coverage format, appeared conspicuously on the front page.

Later that month, several parents called Ralph McIntosh to protest the contents of a "gossip column" in the latest issue of the school newspaper. With the prom less than two months away, the student columnist had written entertainingly but vividly about the maneuvers of certain seniors to "line up dates." Parents of the girls named in the column saw the vividness but not the entertainment.

In the middle of May, when senior awards were announced, Joe Hunt received considerable publicity as the class salutatorian. Joe had *majored in the vocational curriculum and had had an excellent record in school citizenship*. Several disappointed parents, however, failed to take this news in a sanguine light. "Why," they had asked Ralph McIntosh, "are grades in vocational and commercial subjects counted the same as those in the tougher college preparatory courses?" They seemed less than satisfied with his explanation.

After a string of beautiful days in June, it unexpectedly rained on the afternoon of commencement. Traditionally Middlebrook had its commencement exercises out-of-doors in the stadium, where there was ample room for all who wished to attend. Although plans always were developed for the possibility of indoor exercises, practice for that contingency lagged because few believed that the optional plan ever would be needed. It was this year, though, and unfortunately the weather broke so late in the day that there was little chance to forewarn aunts, uncles, grandparents, and friends from out of town of the change. With limited space in the audi-

torium, only four tickets per graduate could be allocated. Not only was the commencement a lackluster ceremony by comparison, but many relatives and friends found with dismay that they had driven to Middlebrook in vain.

"What will they find next to light on?" Ralph wondered, as he turned to the plan he was developing to reduce the chances for hazing of incoming sophomores by the upperclassmen on the opening day of school.

* * *

Are incidents such as these indicative of serious community dissatisfaction with a school? How many of these problems were of an "act of fate" nature? Might some of them have been avoided by a planned course of action? Must a principal learn to take problems like these reasonably lightly in order to avoid becoming emotionally trapped by his position?

CHALLENGES TO ACTION

Playing with almost infinite variety around some central problem cores, incidents similar to those described occur every day in thousands of secondary schools. Each tends to arise because of the virtual impossibility of complete predictability where people and other factors are concerned. Each in a sense represents a conflict, or at least a problem, situation. No "best laid" organizational plan that will keep situations similar to these from arising has been devised. Assuredly, a school without problems would exist only hypothetically; and, indeed, if it were possible for one to come into being, it would not be desirable.

This is no attempt to rationalize our inability to do away with problems by setting up the position that it would be an undesirable goal to achieve. To keep certain types of problems from existing by careful planning is obviously necessary; to encourage the development of others, such as the type of problem a youngster has in preparing for a career choice, is just as apparent.

The point, however, is that a challenge is presented to administrators when problem situations arise, be they unexpected or anticipated. Those who feel secure only when not assailed by problems, particularly the kind brought to them by others, cannot, in all probability, perform productively as administrators. Security in a problem-solving environment, however, can be acquired by most responsible people, if they are willing to accumulate the skills that make this possible.

To return to a thought expressed earlier in this chapter, one of the first steps is to develop further a genuine respect for people and a favorable attitude toward working with them, particularly as they struggle to find ways of coping with their environment. Basically, this is an assessment that must be made by each person, as he reacts introspectively to what happens to him when he works with others. There are those who ostensibly relate productively and harmoniously with others but lack any genuine personal satisfaction in the process. Indeed, it is possible to perform with apparent success in this area, experiencing at the same time discomfort with or antipathy toward people.

An additional necessary step is a building up of the skills that enable the administrator to gain control over problems in order to avoid being controlled by them. By this process, he can exercise a great deal of choice about the battleground on which he will meet the problem. As this skill becomes finely honed, he finds that he is ambushed less and less frequently. This skill-building process is a many-faceted thing, however—one that must be adapted, refined, and developed throughout an entire administrative career. There is no perfect correlation, no magic touchstone, that leads to an "if this—then this" type of control. The most important thing is the ability to recognize the types of problems that are most crucial. Control over these keeps serious trouble from arising and results in an atmosphere that permits the learning of more subtle aspects of the problem-solving process.

The incidents presented above were designed to illustrate problems that might confront secondary school administrators in some of their major task areas—instruction, pupil and staff personnel, business management, and school-community relations. No attempt was made to construct them in comprehensive fashion. Much, purposely, was left to the imagination of the reader. There was no effort directed toward making them illustrations of good or poor administrative practice. They all, however, have this common component: each involves both people and problems in interaction. The problems woven into them were those that might have been anticipated and those that were unexpected. The most fruitful analysis of these incidents arises when the reader makes an effort to put himself into the complex of the problems. In this way a "feel" for the situation results, and a warp and woof kind of analysis permits a situational investigation of the problems. Approaching the incidents with a detached air of objectivity might easily lead to the type of tactical error that often results when hindsight is employed. Identifying, thus, with

various people in the problem situations quickly makes it obvious that solutions are rarely pat, at least the type of solution brought to the problem by only one of the persons involved directly or indirectly with it. There is a variability in perspective of the problem, in value patterns, in the number of components to be considered as evidence before solutions are determined, which shows, in bold relief, that problem-solving is rarely an easy process to be exercised unilaterally by the administrator. It is, rather, a process at which he is almost constantly working with others to effect solutions that are compatible, workable, and appropriate to the problem at hand.

CONCLUSION

For those interested in equipping themselves with the necessary skills, leavened with the right kind of temperament, administration is an exciting and rewarding business. Ever since society delegated to the schools a large measure of responsibility for the education of its young people, each point in time has had its challenges. Particularly stimulating is secondary education now, with our society confronted by so many crucial issues. More and more educators must see a promising avenue for their skills and interests in the career of a secondary school administrator. No book alone can provoke such commitment. We hope, however, that it will help to make more meaningful those experiences in secondary education through which you have already lived and better equip those of you who see the challenge of a leadership career in this administrative field.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. From your experiences in the secondary schools, present an incident involving an administrative problem. Analyze the action taken and identify the key factors in the problem. If you believe that a different solution would have been more appropriate, present your proposed action and analyze the relative merits of the two approaches.
2. Select one of the incidents reported in this chapter and answer the following questions:
 - a. What was the central problem confronting the administrator?
 - b. Were sufficient facts presented to permit a solution of the problem? If not, what additional data are needed?

- c. What steps should the administrator take to effect a solution? Why do you advocate this action?
3. Read one of the cases in Sargent and Belisle, Anderson and Davies, or Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer (see Selected Readings). How does this case differ from those you have read in this chapter? What are the components of the case approach that you are finding most beneficial in your analysis of administrative problems?

SELECTED READINGS

- Anderson, Vivienne, and Daniel R. Davies, *Patterns of Educational Leadership*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. (Chapters I-VIII).
- Campbell, Roald F., John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, *Introduction to Educational Administration*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958. Chapter I.
- Sargent, Cyril G., and Eugene L. Belisle, *Educational Administration: Cases and Concepts*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955.

THE SETTING

FRIENDS AND FOES OF MODERN SECONDARY school education are filling books, pamphlets, "Letters to the Editor" columns, television screens, and all the rest of the communication media with charges and counter-charges about the secondary school. The present-day high school or junior high school did not spring fullgrown from the ground. Schools have long histories, and these histories have deep meaning for the current discussions of secondary education. Unfortunately, present problems are often attacked with no serious study of the historical background that has shaped these problems. *It is the purpose of this chapter to consider the historical background of the American secondary school and to relate this background to the present scene.*

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Probably no secondary school teacher or administrator has proceeded through his undergraduate teacher education program without hearing and reading about the Latin grammar school, the academy, or the Kalamazoo case. We shall discuss these and other historical elements briefly here, pointing out those developments that seem particularly pertinent for consideration by a secondary school administrator.

The Latin Grammar School

The Latin grammar school was transplanted from England to the colonies with very little change in either function or format. The first such school in America was the Boston Latin Grammar School, established in 1635. Although known as secondary schools, most colonial Latin grammar schools were parallel to existing elementary (common or dame) schools rather than upward extensions of such schools. Actually, attendance at the Latin grammar school instead of at the common school was more an indication of a student's social and economic position than of his educational attainments. Brubacher reports that a number of boys (girls were not eligible for attendance) entered the Latin school at the age of seven or eight and that it was not unusual for beginning reading to be included in the curriculum offering of these schools.¹

The curriculum of the Latin grammar school was designed to prepare boys for college and for eventual service in church or state. Study of the classics comprised the great bulk of the curriculum. Although these schools were theoretically free, the narrowness of the curriculum and its obvious inappropriateness except for those few destined for college made the school less than popular with the great majority of the population. For example, Massachusetts towns of a certain size were required by law to maintain Latin grammar schools and many preferred to pay the fine levied for failure to establish such schools rather than to maintain them.

Requirements for graduation from the Latin school were nebulous. For the most part, a boy attended this school until he reached the age and attained the necessary proficiency in the classics to enter the college of his choice. In this sense, then, these schools were college preparatory schools with the curriculum dominated by the entrance requirements of either colonial or English colleges and universities.

While historically significant as the first institution for secondary education in America, the Latin grammar school did not ever prosper greatly in this country. In the New England colonies it experienced some success, but even here the success was not widespread. In the Southern colonies, the wealthier families usually sent their sons back to England for all of their formal education. It seems fair to say that this period in our history was virtually devoid of general opportunities for education beyond the common school.

¹ John S. Brubacher, *A History of the Problems of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1947), pp. 423-429.

The Academy

By the end of the first half of the eighteenth century, social and political conditions led to increasing demands for either a changed Latin grammar school or a new institution to meet those needs that the Latin school could not meet. Because of unwillingness or of inability, or perhaps a combination, the Latin grammar school did not make any major changes to satisfy new demands. Consequently, between the years 1750 and 1800 a strong new institution known as the academy gained strength rapidly.

The first and probably the best known of the early academies was that founded by Benjamin Franklin in Philadelphia in 1751. It was Franklin's hope that the classics could be abandoned in favor of English grammar and literature. He also added such subjects as accounting, astronomy, geography, history, and natural science, although he was unable to persuade his backers to make the school as "practical" as he had hoped.

The Andover Academy in Massachusetts was the primary model for academies in America.² *This school included a wide variety of "practical" subjects in addition to Greek and Latin grammar. It is worth while to note that the academy recognized the value of certain terminal programs as well as the usual college-preparatory curriculum. Commercial and scientific fields of endeavor were assuming importance, and these fields did not necessarily require college graduation for entrance into their practice.*

Another step taken during this period was the organization of academies for girls. This early development of secondary education for girls represented a growing recognition of the need for something more than elementary reading and writing instruction for the women of America.

In certain respects, the academies had the same defects as the Latin grammar schools. They generally paralleled common schools. They were, for the most part, private tuition schools and as such served only a small and select group of students. In spite of the broader curriculum, the academies did not serve the broad needs of a wide segment of the population.

On the positive side, the academies did greatly broaden the curriculum that was considered appropriate for secondary education. Perhaps the most important fact about the academies is the large number of them established in this country. Popular sentiment for secondary education in America was reflected by the fact that the academy experienced such rapid growth during the late 1700's and the early 1800's. Although esti-

² *Ibid.*, pp. 430-433.

mates vary, it would appear that there were well over 6,000 such institution in the United States around the middle of the nineteenth century.

The High School

Two conflicting ideas present in the academy movement led to the establishment of the high school. The first idea was that secondary education should be available to all American children. This idea was reflected in the rapid growth and broadened curriculum of the academy, and in the establishment of academies for girls. Against this was the idea that secondary education was a privilege for which the students should pay—an idea reflected in the lack of free academies except in a few areas, notably New York. Also in opposition to the first concept was the carry-over to the academies of a great deal of classical curriculum material from the Latin schools. This somewhat less than utilitarian subject matter stood in opposition to the growing demands for a curriculum that would serve certain practical and terminal ends. A final important consideration was the need for a school that would follow rather than compete with the elementary or common school.

These and other factors led to the development of the free public high school. Although Connecticut had enabling legislation for the creation of such schools as early as 1798, the first free public high school was opened in Boston in 1821. Known first as the Boston English Classical School, this school became the Boston English High School in 1824. In 1826, a similar school was organized for girls.

The important characteristics of these schools, which were the direct forerunners of today's high school, were that they were upward extensions of the elementary school (graduation from the common school was usually a prerequisite to admission to the high school), they stressed the "practical" fields and de-emphasized the classical curriculum, they provided terminal education as well as college preparatory work, and they were open to all children at public expense. The high school was an immediate success, although it was not until well after the early years of the high school that the academy rapidly declined in importance. It seems safe to say that the high school for all children grew because of the recognized strength of the academy for a few children rather than because of any inherent weaknesses of the academy. As the high school continued to grow, academies either were replaced, became colleges or normal schools, or continued as strong, private, college-preparatory institutions.

In 1827, Massachusetts passed legislation requiring all communities of certain size to maintain a public high school supported by taxation. It was not, however, until the famous *Kalamazoo Case* of 1874 that the legality of public tax support for secondary education was finally settled. The complainants in this case claimed that education beyond the common school was an unnecessary luxury and that those who desired such education should pay for it. Judge Cooley, in the decision of the Supreme Court of Michigan which he authored, traced the history of public education in Michigan and reported the unanimous opinion of the court that both educational history and educational law in Michigan supported the right of a school board to offer secondary education at public expense.³ This decision became a precedent for similar cases in many other states. Cubberly cites it as a major victory in what he has called "the battles for free public schools."⁴

Following the decision in *Kalamazoo*, the growth of the public high school was phenomenal. The social, political, and economic conditions that first gave rise to the high school continued to support its increase. Continued industrialization, the expanding frontier, the rise of state universities with the impetus of the Morrill Act, and increased national wealth, all contributed to the growth of the public high school.

Strangely enough, many of the vexing problems that face secondary school educators today faced the early high school. Terminal curriculum tracks as opposed to college preparatory tracks were discussed and debated. The place of the classics in the public school was as "hot" a subject in 1900 as it is now. As a matter of fact, some students of the secondary school curriculum agree with Parker's contention that little else than more courses has been added to the high school since its early days.⁵

The first high schools recognized two objectives: that of preparing directly for adult life (terminal work) and that of preparing indirectly for adult life via college or university (college preparatory work). As the high school grew in enrollment, it became apparent that the students who saw this school as a terminal schooling experience had many and varied life objectives. The two-fold division became complicated as the noncollege-

³ *Stuart vs. School District No. 1 of Kalamazoo*. 30 Mich. 69 (1874). The decision in this case is cited in detail in Robert R. Hamilton and Paul R. Mort, *The Law and Public Education*, Revised Edition (Brooklyn: The Foundation Press, 1959), pp. 156-162.

⁴ Ellwood P. Cubberly, *Public Education in the United States*, Revised Edition (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934), pp. 263-64.

⁵ J. Cecil Parker, unpublished lecture notes, University of California (Berkeley), 1955.

bound segment of the student body expressed desires for preparation to meet varying objectives. This led to two developments. The first was the establishment within a single high school of a number of courses of study. Students entered a course of study suited to their objectives, whether commercial, technical, or college-preparatory. The second was the development of separate high schools for students with specific objectives. Thus, commercial high schools and technical high schools were developed for those students not preparing for college.

Both of these developments created problems that still plague secondary education. The discussions in the 1960's of the place of the "comprehensive" high school, of the values of separate technical and vocational schools, and of the question of types of graduation diplomas or certificates that should be issued, all stem from problems that have been present since the first high school opened its doors.

The Junior High School

The history of college-high school articulation is long and interesting, and careful scrutiny of it must await a discussion of purposes. However, it should be noted that college and university personnel played a greater role than did secondary school educators in the creation of the junior high school. The National Education Association's Committee of Ten (1893), the Committee of Fifteen (1895), the Committee on College Entrance Requirements (1895), and the Committee on Economy of Time in Education (1912) were all composed predominately of college presidents, deans, and professors; and all recommended the downward extension of secondary school education into the seventh and eighth grades to facilitate increased preparation for college.

In the early 1900's various communities began to experiment with the development of a senior and a junior high school division. Junior high schools in Columbus, Ohio, and in Berkeley, California, claim to be the first in the nation. Many communities were content to departmentalize the seventh and eighth grades and retain the typical 8-4 organization, but even in these early years one could find 6-6, 6-2-4, 6-4-4, and 6-3-5 plans as well as the more typical 6-3-3 arrangement.

Although the idea of better, or at least more, preparation for college gave impetus to the junior high school movement, psychological and sociological bases soon gave added support. Psychological studies indicated that children of the age to be in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades were

undergoing great psychological changes that required special recognition. Problems faced by students in the transition from elementary to secondary schools also gave support to a transitional school.

Finally, expediency played an important role in the rapid growth of junior high schools during the 1920's and 1930's. School enrollments rapidly outgrew school facilities and many communities chose to build junior high schools rather than construct more expensive high schools. By eliminating the ninth grade from the senior high school, high school facilities were often made to meet enrollment growth without constructing new high schools. This led to many junior high school programs that were little more than upper elementary school programs transferred to a separate building.

GROWTH OF SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The principalship in American secondary education is a position with a much longer history than is possessed by the position of superintendent of schools. In the early days of education in the United States, lay school committees performed those tasks now commonly performed by superintendents of schools. However, whenever a school had more than one teacher, a head teacher or principal teacher was almost always appointed by the school committee. The early academies had their headmasters, and many schools use this term today to describe the position of the principal.

Early head teachers were generally given little released time for administrative duties. They were usually responsible for discipline in the school and would conduct school committee members and other visitors on inspection trips through the schools. As secondary schools became larger, principals became responsible for scheduling students and teachers and were required to submit various reports concerning attendance, courses of study, and the like.

By the last half of the nineteenth century, there was a growing tendency to recognize a profession of educational administration. Administrative duties became too burdensome for school committee members and the superintendency became recognized as the administrative arm of the committee. In many cases, high school principals were named as superintendents and the duties of the superintendency were added to those of the principalship. In other cases, the two positions were kept separate.

It is fair to say, then, that the high school principalship has existed

in the United States from the time that there were high schools with more than one teacher. The concept of educational administration as a profession, however, is of fairly recent origin.

ENROLLMENT TRENDS

In tracing the history of the secondary school, it is important to describe certain quantitative facts about secondary education. These quantitative facts have certain qualitative implications. In considering enrollment data—or any figures relating to public education in the United States—it is well to remember that even the best sources often give little better than highly informed estimates. The transmission of figures from the teacher to the principal to the superintendent to the state department of education and, finally, to some national agency such as the United States Office of Education is a process not conducive to complete accuracy in the final report. Another problem is that of definition. What, for example, is a high school student? Is he anyone in grades 9 through 12 or is he anyone in grades 7 through 12? If a school district uses the 6-4-4 plan, how are students in grades 13 and 14 classified? Often different states will answer these questions differently, which leads again to certain distortions in national reports.*

In the discussions to follow, efforts are made to indicate the definitions used in arriving at the figures presented. The reader should pay attention to trends and to relative positions, however, rather than become too engrossed in particular figures.

Number of Students

Table 1 provides information concerning enrollments in secondary schools in the United States since 1889. It should be noted that secondary schools are defined as grades 9 through 12, that data are for both public and private schools, and that territories of the United States (and also the states of Alaska and Hawaii) are not included in the tabulations.

The most significant column in Table 1 is probably the one relating to secondary school enrollment as a percentage of secondary-school-age youth (ages 14-17). It is not surprising that the number of children in school has increased steadily, for the total population of the United

* See United States Office of Education, *The Common Core of State Educational Information*, State Educational Records and Reports Series, Handbook 1, Bulletin No. 8 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953).

Table 1. Enrollment Data for Secondary Schools in the United States, 1889-1959

| Year | Secondary School Enrollment | Population, ¹ 14-17 years of age | Secondary School Enrollment as a per cent of population, aged 14-17 |
|------|-----------------------------|--|---|
| 1889 | 359,949 | 5,354,653 | 6.7 |
| 1900 | 699,403 | 6,152,231 | 11.4 |
| 1910 | 1,115,398 | 7,220,298 | 15.4 |
| 1920 | 2,500,176 | 7,735,841 | 32.3 |
| 1930 | 4,804,255 | 9,341,221 | 51.4 |
| 1940 | 7,123,009 | 9,720,419 | 73.3 |
| 1950 | 6,427,042 | 8,404,757 | 76.5 |
| 1954 | 7,108,373 | 8,839,000 ² | 80.4 |
| 1958 | 8,880,000 ² | 10,963,000 ³ | 81.0 ² |
| 1959 | 9,240,000 ² | | |

¹ Includes population in Armed Services and institutions.

² Estimated.

³ Calculated using enrollment and estimated percentage.

Sources: U.S. Office of Education, "Statistical Summary of Education, 1953-54," Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1952-54. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957, p. 26; *School Life*, September 1958, p. 8; and *School Life*, September 1959, p. 26.

States has shown a regular increase. The great increase in the attracting and holding powers of the secondary school, however, presents problems of much greater scope than the mere provision of increased seating space for an increased audience. It is apparent from even a casual analysis that the student body of the secondary school today is of a much different make-up than was the student body in, say, 1920. It is not our purpose here to analyze the vast political, economic, and social changes that have resulted in the fact that almost all children who are of the age to be in a secondary school are, in fact, there. We would stress, however, that the facts show that they are in attendance and, furthermore, show that the trend appears to be continuing toward a 100 per cent enrollment of those who, by age alone, are eligible for enrollment.

Number of Graduates

It seems important to pay some attention to the number of students who are successful in their high school careers. Table 2 provides information concerning graduates from both public and private high schools. It is

Table 2. High School Graduates, 1870-1958

| Year | Number of High School Graduates | Population, 17 years of age | High School Graduates as a per cent of population, aged 17 |
|------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| 1870 | 16,000 | 815,000 | 2.0 |
| 1880 | 23,634 | 946,026 | 2.5 |
| 1890 | 43,731 | 1,259,177 | 3.5 |
| 1900 | 94,883 | 1,489,146 | 6.4 |
| 1910 | 156,429 | 1,786,240 | 8.8 |
| 1920 | 311,266 | 1,855,173 | 16.8 |
| 1930 | 666,904 | 2,295,822 | 29.0 |
| 1940 | 1,221,475 | 2,403,074 | 50.8 |
| 1950 | 1,199,700 | 2,034,450 | 59.0 |
| 1954 | 1,276,100 | 2,128,600 | 60.0 |
| 1958 | 1,333,500 ¹ | | |

¹ Estimated.

Source: U.S. Office of Education, "Statistical Summary of Education, 1953-54," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1952-54*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957, p. 27; and *School Life*, November 1959, p. 12.

apparent not only that an increasing percentage of the school-age population is attending school, but also that an increasing proportion of the population is graduating from high school. This fact, of course, is interpreted in different ways by different people. To some it represents the increasing challenge to the high school; to others it signifies decreasing standards for high school graduation. Regardless of interpretation, the fact is present and must be dealt with by the secondary school administrator.

Number of Secondary Schools

There are various estimates of the number of secondary schools in the United States. The most recent complete national survey revealed that there were 25,637 public secondary schools and 3,913 private secondary schools.⁷ These figures include four-year high schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, and undivided (usually six-year) high schools. The total of about 29,500 secondary schools is probably quite accurate to date as there has been no major change in this number since 1938.⁸

The average high school is still a small high school. In 1954, forty

⁷ United States Office of Education, "Statistical Summary of Education, 1953-1954," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1952-1954* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957), pp. 4-5.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

states provided complete data regarding enrollment in public schools by school districts. Over half of the almost 46,000 school districts reporting enrolled less than 25 pupils. Only about 8 per cent of these districts had over 1,000 pupils.⁹ As unbelievable as this may seem in these days of "bigness," the fact remains that the small high school is still present in very large numbers.

In brief, an ever-increasing percentage of youth in the high school age group is in attendance in American public and private secondary schools. In addition, the number of graduates from high school is increasing. The number of secondary schools in this country has remained fairly stable for the past twenty years and the small high school is still much in evidence. These are significant facts to remember in any discussion of the changing purposes of the American secondary school.

CHANGING PURPOSES

Almost every definition of administration or leadership includes some mention of the function of assisting an organization in meeting its purposes. It is necessary, then, to consider carefully the purposes of the American public secondary school.

Early Purposes

In the days of the Latin grammar school, the question of purpose was not a difficult one. The major purpose of these schools was to prepare boys for college and for eventual service as leaders in the church or government. Enrollments were small, and secondary school education was a privilege of the few rather than a right of the many.

For the most part, this singleness of purpose was an accepted pattern. In many cases, the secondary school prepared boys for an English college or university. Thus, with no real "free" schools and with a well-accepted single purpose, there was little cause for confusion about or study of the functions of a public secondary school.

New Demands and Purposes

With growing economic, political, and social demands upon American citizens, many began to challenge the value of a totally classical secondary

⁹ United States Office of Education, "Statistics of State School Systems: Organization, Staff, Pupils, and Finances, 1953-1954," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1952-1954*. (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957), p. 4.

education. Benjamin Franklin was but reflecting a general attitude when he began his efforts to create a "practical" secondary school. By "practical," Franklin and other leaders in the academy movement were referring particularly to preparation for careers in business and commerce as opposed to the early emphasis on the ministry and politics (law) alone. For example, the growing merchant fleet required navigators, accountants, and insurance underwriters—to name but a few of the "practical" occupations. These positions required more mathematics, history, and geography than were available in the Latin grammar school and there seemed little reason to avoid English in favor of Latin and Greek.

The concept of a "practical" school as represented by the academy movement was not synonymous with a concept of universal, free, public secondary education. The abilities to read, to write, and to "sum"—the abilities gained in the common school—were still seen as the maximum needs of a majority of the people. However, the problems of purpose were beginning to grow as many began to claim that the single purpose of the Latin grammar school was not enough and that certain "practical" purposes must also be served.

By the second decade of the nineteenth century, even broader purposes for secondary education than those represented by the academy movement were enunciated. In Boston, a committee indicated that a school should be established that would, at public expense, prepare young men for life as well as for college. This was not to say that college was neither life nor a preparation for life, but the committee was particularly concerned with those students who, in 1820, went directly from the common school into life. It is difficult to isolate the specific purposes that the high school was to meet, but it seems clear that by the first half of the nineteenth century people desired something beyond the common school for all of the children of this country.

Brubacher points to a number of factors that led to the growth of the high school and which are related to its purposes. Rapid industrialization made apparent the economic value to the individual of further education. Equalitarian principles, particularly on the fast-moving frontier, made the highly-selective secondary school unpopular. Increased economic strength made the support of public high schools possible. Education, open to all, became a medium for the upward social mobility of vast masses of people. And, it must be admitted, unemployment problems which were faced from time to time during the period of the high school's

growth, made high school attendance "something to do" for young people who could not find jobs.¹⁰

Through all this period of growth, the high school continued as a necessary prerequisite for entrance into college. Thus the "split personality" of the secondary school was a continuing problem. As at least a dual-purpose organization—college preparatory and terminal—the development of a proper balance was, and is, a constant problem. This problem led to a number of formal efforts to describe or to define the purposes of the American secondary school.

The "Committee Approach"

By 1900, the general idea that secondary school education should be provided at public expense for all children was well accepted. We might say, then, that the purpose is to educate youth. But this leads to two questions—one of content and the other of method. In the early days, before the impressive contributions of psychology raised questions of teaching methods, the major concern was with content. Thus, the first major study of secondary education was essentially a study of content. This study was conducted by the Committee of Ten, a group dominated by college professors, which was appointed by the National Education Association. The report of the Committee, published in 1893, attempted to define the proper learnings in each of nine subject fields for high school students. The apparent assumption of the Committee was that the only legitimate purpose of the high school was to assist students in gaining mastery of these nine academic subjects.

By 1918, things had changed. Two committees had studied the high school between 1893 and 1918, but both had been concerned solely with college entrance requirements. These studies had led to the "unit system"—a system given new emphasis in 1906 with the definition of the "Carnegie Unit" by the report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

In 1918, an entirely new direction was taken by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education with the development of the so-called Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. This group expressed objectives not in terms of subject-matter goals but in terms of what might be called "life-adjustment" goals. Briefly, the objectives of the secondary school were seen to be the development in youth of health

¹⁰ Brubacher, *op. cit.*, pp. 433-436.

and physical fitness, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocational effectiveness, citizenship, worthy use of leisure time, and ethical character.¹¹

This list led to a conflict between "content" and "adjustment" advocates that is still present. Later statements of purpose from national commissions or committees reflected the "adjustment" viewpoint, although the extent to which such national pronouncements lessened the actual influence of college entrance requirements on high school curricula is subject to question. Reports of the Committee on Social-Economic Goals of America (NEA) in 1933,¹² of the Committee on Orientation of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in 1936 and 1937,¹³ and of the Educational Policies Commission in 1937 and 1944,¹⁴ all stressed ends other than content for the public schools.

Other Formulations

A complete review of all statements relating to the purposes of secondary education in America would be a several-volume collection. Only three more statements will be mentioned here. In 1955, after extensive state and local meetings, almost two thousand delegates assembled in Washington for the White House Conference on Education. This Conference was organized to provide opportunities for a thorough study of educational problems in the United States. The report of the Conference stressed three purposes: adequate training in the fundamental skills, training in citizenship, and vocational training.¹⁵ That this is an omnibus statement is recognized when the report also cites that "during the past two generations this list of school goals has grown with increased speed. . . . should

¹¹ Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1918), p. 3.

¹² Committee on Social-Economic Goals of America, *Social-Economic Goals of America* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1933).

¹³ National Association of Secondary School Principals, Committee on Orientation, *Issues of Secondary Education*, Bulletin No. 59 (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1936); and *Functions of Secondary Education*, Bulletin No. 64 (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1937).

¹⁴ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1937); and Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1944).

¹⁵ The Committee for the White House Conference on Education, *A Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956).

this broadening of the goals be recognized as legitimate? This committee answers Yes."¹⁶

During recent years, a national organization known as the Council for Basic Education has provided much comment on public school matters. Primarily concerned with the intellectual development of children and youth, the Council has commissioned a panel of scholars in various fields to draw up curriculum standards for secondary schools. In a statement of purpose, the Council made the following summary:

CBE believes that the school has many subsidiary purposes but that its primary purpose is fourfold: (1) To transmit the facts about the heritage and culture of the race; (2) to teach young people to read and write and figure; (3) in the process of (1) and (2) to train the intelligence and to stimulate the pleasures of thought; and (4) to provide that atmosphere of moral affirmation without which education is merely animal training.¹⁷

The curriculum studies of the Council represent an attempt to specify those "facts about the heritage and culture" that should be a part of the secondary school curriculum. The Council appears to be a good representative of those groups and individuals who believe that the purposes of secondary education have been permitted to stray too far from intellectual development toward vocational and "adjustment" pursuits.

The final report to be mentioned here is the Conant report.¹⁸ With the support of the Carnegie Foundation, Conant studied the American high school for two years. He produced a series of recommendations based on the premise that the American high school must fulfill three basic functions: provide a good general education for all youth as future citizens of a democracy, provide elective programs to assist the majority of pupils to develop useful skills, and educate adequately those with a talent for handling advanced academic subjects. This statement of function leads Conant to the support of the comprehensive high school and his recommendations are specific suggestions for reaching this comprehensive status.

As one reads any historical analysis of the changing purposes of American secondary education, two things become apparent. First, there is a cyclical trend in the ebb and flow of various concepts of the purposes.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

¹⁷ "What Do We Mean By 'Basic': Some Notes for a Definition," *CBE Bulletin*, 2:1-2, September 1957.

¹⁸ James B. Conant, *The American High School Today* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959).

Secondly, the change in purposes is closely related to and quite likely an effect of changing enrollment characteristics. The first point is undoubtedly not an isolated fact—actually, the trend in statements of purpose follows closely the history of the United States. Wars bring war-related purposes to the fore; depressions bring social action purposes; prosperity and peace bring renewed demands for leisure-oriented content and the like.

Furthermore, the high school principal must recognize that national statements of purpose may or may not coincide with local aspirations. The definition of purposes for any complex organization requires careful study and thought and is a never-ending task. This is part of the challenge of educational leadership about which we shall be talking throughout this volume.

THE CURRENT SCENE

We have now explored the growth of the American secondary school and of secondary school administration, enrollment trends in the secondary school, and the changing purposes of the high school. Before moving into the specifics of secondary school administration, it is appropriate to call attention to some of the conflicts and concerns that face the secondary school principal in the middle years of the twentieth century. Some of these conflicts and concerns will be briefly highlighted here.

Purposes

We have already indicated that the secondary school is conceived to have different purposes by different people. Purpose underlies curriculum and questions of purpose must be resolved before curriculum can be developed. So many catch-words and clichés are in use today to define the purpose of education that it is difficult to clarify the conflict. Such terms as “progressive,” “comprehensive,” “life-adjustment,” “basic,” and “vocational” have many meanings. The use of such terms in debating the purposes of secondary schools does more to cloud than to clarify the issues.

Essentially, the current conflict centers about the same things that were discussed in the 1780's and deals primarily with subpurposes rather than with major purposes. Democracy needs an educated citizenry and citizens in a democracy have a right to realize their full potential. These seem to be the unquestioned purposes of secondary education. But when is a citizen educated? What role should the school play in helping a

citizen realize his potential? These are the questions that create conflict, and these are the matters that will concern secondary school principals as they wrestle with the problem of purposes.

Student Body

As we have seen earlier, the percentage of children of high school age who are actually attending high school is approaching the 100 per cent mark. There is no evidence that this trend will reverse itself. As a matter of fact, colleges and universities are now struggling with enrollment problems as an increasing percentage of college-age young people seek admittance. *This means, then, that the secondary school principal will administer an organization with a complex and heterogeneous clientele. He will have the able and the barely educable, the motivated and the unmotivated, the rich and the poor. And he will have problems. Nevertheless, it seems clear that the comprehensive high school with a comprehensive student body will be the order of the day.*

Curriculum

With conflict in setting purposes and with a heterogeneous student body, curriculum problems in the secondary school will continue to plague the administrator. General education, vocational training, college preparatory curricula, education for safe living, these and many more represent demands to be fitted together into a four- or six-year secondary school program. *Little or no progress has been made in deleting courses from high school programs, although great strides have been made in adding courses. New approaches are needed in the development of the secondary school curriculum. Leadership in discovering these approaches is expected of the secondary school administrator.*

Staff

As more demands are made upon the secondary school, the position of secondary school teacher becomes highly technical. As technology has grown in the United States, demands for highly-skilled technicians have grown in all fields. While we often bemoan the shortage of teachers, we must recognize a corresponding shortage of personnel in all skilled work. There will probably never be an abundance of skilled manpower in any profession. If the demands made upon secondary education are to be met, administrators will need to find new ways to utilize the talent available to

them. This will require new methods of organizing the secondary schools, new arrangements of curricula, and new uses of such media as radio, television, and recordings. New ways to reduce the clerical load placed upon teachers will have to be discovered. In these, and in other endeavors related to staffing our schools, administrative leadership is necessary.

CONCLUSION

In short, every element of the growth of secondary education in the United States points to increasing difficulties. This is not said to discourage the prospective secondary school principal, but rather to indicate that a major contribution can be made by those who choose to serve in this role. The public high school in America is only about 125 years old and it was less than a hundred years ago that the Kalamazoo case gave it firm legal sanction. No greater challenge to leadership ability exists than to work toward the continued growth of the American high school.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Select any current statement of the purposes of the American secondary school and describe some specific proposals that would lead to the attainment of any one of these purposes.
2. Describe several events in American history that had an influence on enrollment characteristics of the secondary school. Indicate the nature of the change caused by each event.
3. Describe some differences between the secondary school you attended and the secondary school as it now exists. How do you account for these changes?
4. Describe what seem to you to be some major events of the next twenty-five years that will tend to influence the nature of secondary education.
5. Describe briefly two problems in secondary education that seem to have been with us since colonial times. How do you account for our failure to solve these problems?

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✓ *sion.* The first is that "to lead" means "to guide in direction, course, action, and the like," or "to show the way." The second meaning of "to lead" that seems appropriate is "to command" an organization or group.

(Both of these meanings imply that to lead is to take some responsibility for getting a group from one place to another, from one idea to another, from one state of being to another, or merely from one action to another.) Although this may be an oversimplification, for our purposes let us accept this meaning of the verb and the corresponding meanings of the simple and of the complex noun. This means, then, that leadership will here mean skill in assuming responsibility for getting a group to take some sort of purposeful action. }

Before continuing to a discussion of leadership with adjectives, we shall make clear our perceptions of the relationship between the terms "leadership" and "administration." "Leadership" is the more inclusive term. Administrators are leaders. All of the leadership in an organization, however, is not exercised by the administrator, nor is all of the leadership present in an organization exerted from within that organization. We usually say that the administrator plays a "leadership role," which means that he has certain specific responsibilities in the leadership activity within an organization. Thus, when we talk about leadership in an organization, we are talking about administrators as well as about others; when we talk about administrators, we are not talking about all of the leadership in an organization. We shall indicate shortly what we believe to be the specific purposes of and necessity for administrative leadership in a secondary school.

Extremes in Leadership Types ✓

There are extremes in leadership types. Far out on one end of the continuum is the autocratic leader. On the other end is what some call the "disappearing leader." Probably no leader is a pure example of either extreme. By examining the extremes, however, we can gain insight into the more conservative positions.

✓ **THE AUTOCRATIC LEADER.** The term "autocratic" is so value-loaded that it is difficult to write or hear it without inserting a loud exclamation of distaste in parentheses. (Essentially, the autocratic leader is one who assumes almost all of the responsibility in deciding for what purposes a group will strive, what actions will be followed in reaching these purposes, and, specifically, what action each member of the group will contribute to

The Middle Ground

Obviously, the school administrator as a leader cannot function as a pure example of either of these extreme leadership types. The nature of American society and the characteristics of secondary school teachers make it unrealistic to expect to find a pure autocratic principal. On the other hand, the nature of the principal's responsibilities to his superintendent, to his teachers, to his students, to his board of education, and to his community makes it unlikely that he can be a disappearing leader. This means that school principals will actually exhibit leadership behavior somewhere between these two extremes. The description of various positions between the extremes leads to many other qualifications to the term "leadership."

Thus, we speak of the "effective group leader," the "managerial leader," the "strong leader," the "paternalistic leader," the "humane leader," the "authoritarian leader," the "considerate leader," and so on. In the literature of educational administration in America, however, the most overworked adjective of all is "democratic." We speak of the *democratic leader, democratic principles of leadership, or democratic leadership behavior*. Unfortunately, this adjective has been used to describe an infinite number of positions along the leadership continuum.

Effective leaders in a democracy will have different leadership styles, and no effort should be made to define democratic leadership so narrowly as to give guilt feelings to effective leaders who differ from the narrow definition of the "democratic" leader. If, for example, we accept re-election as one criterion of the effectiveness of political leaders in the United States (and we accept this with some qualms) it is apparent that three effective leaders—each of whom experienced re-election—Franklin Roosevelt, Harry Truman, and Dwight Eisenhower, differed greatly in their leadership behavior. Who is to say that one was more "democratic" than the others?

Our description of the democratic leader, then, must provide room in the middle ground for various leadership styles.

THE LEADER IN A DEMOCRACY

(When we speak of a "democratic leader," we imply that we are talking about a leader whose leadership behavior is based upon democratic principles) Counts describes in some detail the Hebraic-Christian ethic,

the humanistic spirit and its science and scientific method outgrowth, and the heritage of the rule of law, all of which he feels underlie what he calls our democratic faith.² In discussing this democratic faith, Counts describes seven characteristics essential to such a faith. These are an affirmation of the worth and dignity of the individual, the declaration that in a most profound sense all men are created equal, the belief that political and civil liberty are the only dependable guardians of individual worth and equality, a foundation of law and orderly process, a foundation of basic morality, a foundation of individual opportunity, and a foundation of individual responsibility.³

The National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration listed three ideals that they believed were fundamental to democratic educational leadership. These were the declaration of the dignity and worth of the individual, the placing of reliance upon the method of intelligence, and the placing of reliance upon the cooperative use of intelligence in the solution of problems common to the group.⁴

The Democratic Leader

These and other statements about democracy indicate that the democratic leader must organize his leadership behavior so as to recognize and to utilize the rights and the abilities of the individual members of the group he leads. This idea can be carried to the extreme of the disappearing leader, but it is difficult to see how the pure autocrat can live up to this requirement. Why is it, then, that we cannot recommend that the secondary school principal become a disappearing leader? Basically, it is because of the need to consider that most organizations do not exist solely to serve the group that is officially a part of the organization. Thus, the public secondary school does not exist to serve only the teachers and other employees of the school nor does it exist solely to serve its students nor does it exist solely to serve the local community. A visible and active leader is necessary to make decisions that involve demands from or requirements of more than any single group served by the school.

² George S. Counts, *Education and American Civilization* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952), pp. 220-277.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 281-284.

⁴ *Educational Leaders—Their Function and Preparation*, A Report of the Second Work Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (Madison, Wis.: The Conference, 1948), pp. 5-6.

In addition to serving many groups, the school is often a large and complex organization itself. Many times it would be wasteful of the intelligence of the professional staff of the school to ask each member of this staff to engage in careful deliberation of every decision that must be made. Here again, a visible and active leader is necessary to ensure that group involvement in decision-making is efficiently and intelligently used.

This means that the democratic leader should not aspire to become either a disappearing leader or an autocratic leader. We have now seen what the democratic leader should not be. Let us try to define what he should be.

Firstly, he should be a person who feels a responsibility for assisting a group to reach goals, some of which will be defined by the group and some of which will be defined for the group. C

Secondly, he should be a person who recognizes that for any given problem facing the group there will be intelligence from within and from without the group that will lead to better solutions than he can devise through the use of his intelligence alone. C

Thirdly, he should be a person who can delegate appropriate responsibilities to group members and who can, consequently, also openly recognize the contributions of group members to group success. G

Finally, he should be a person who can utilize group intelligence and, at the same time, accept personal responsibility for the progress of the group toward its goals. G

Although it is difficult, if not impossible, to construct a single-sentence definition of democratic leadership, the following definition contains most of the concepts we have been discussing:

A democratic leader accepts responsibility for playing a major role in assisting a group or an organization to reach its goals and meets this responsibility in such a way as to recognize and to utilize the contributions that individuals inside and outside the group or organization can make toward reaching these goals and in such a way as to secure the maximum cooperation of these individuals in making their contributions.

This definition makes clear that "one-man rule" is not democratic leadership. On the other hand, it indicates the need for a nondisappearing leader to play a major role in the group or organization. At the same time, the definition is not so restrictive that it calls for any single style of leader-

aware of the fact that he has both the responsibility and the authority of his position and that neither attribute is "undemocratic."

Status and Actual Leadership

One final word should be said about the leader in a democracy. We have been talking specifically about leaders, not about secondary school principals. It is of course our hope that the two are the same, but appointing a man a principal does not automatically make him a leader. An actual leader is one who exhibits leadership behavior; a status leader is one who holds a position requiring leadership. We are all familiar, unfortunately, with secondary schools in which the actual leadership is not exerted by the principal. Perhaps the superintendent is the actual leader, or perhaps it is a teacher with long tenure in the school. There may be a number of reasons for this situation, but regardless of the reasons, it is always possible that the principal of a school is a status leader only.

PURPOSE OF LEADERSHIP IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

The general role of leaders has been considered, but what are the purposes to be met by secondary school administrators? It is probably little better than a truism that the basic purpose of any educational administration position is to facilitate the teaching-learning process. The important consideration for us is to discover the specific purposes of educational administration.

The School Community

A community is difficult to define. There are at least eighty definitions that are used to describe the concept of "community." It is not our purpose here to develop a sociological treatise on this concept; it is merely to point out that the secondary school exists in a community and that secondary school administration is carried out against a community background.

For the most part, the immediate community of the secondary school can be defined as its attendance area, that is, the geographical area from which it draws its students. This community is a part of larger communities, of a city, a county, a state, a region, a nation, and, indeed, of the world. Each of these larger communities plays a role in shaping the charac-

of existing opportunities and create new opportunities to know his community in much more than a superficial manner.

Goals and Policies

The first area of administrative leadership is in facilitating the development of goals and policies. "Facilitating" is probably an overworked word in educational literature, but its meaning is important as a basic part of the administrator's concept of his role. The school principal does not develop goals and policies, but he must set the stage so that goals and policies are developed. It is this "setting of the stage" to which the word "facilitating" refers.

In Chapter 2 we discussed at length the problems related to the development of the purposes of the American secondary school. We saw that a statement of purposes is basic for the development of programs and for the selection of staff. The first responsibility of the secondary school principal is to be sure that his school has an understandable and useful statement of goals. The superintendent of schools in a district will be responsible for facilitating the development of goals for the district. The principal will need to work within this framework and see to it that the goals developed for his school are appropriately related to district goals, to the needs of his attendance area, and to the particular grade levels encompassed by his school.

➤ In this process of goal development, the principal will need to involve lay citizens as well as professional staff members. One of the basic tenets of the American public school system is that the people have the right and the obligation to determine the purposes of their schools. The "people" does not mean only the PTA or the local service club. The principal should make every effort to involve broad segments of his school community in the development of goal statements.

Occasionally, a school administrator excuses a lagging school system by explaining that it represents "all that the people want." Lay responsibility for stating purposes is not an excuse, it is a challenge. The school principal as a leader needs to play more than a passive role in this undertaking; he needs to raise the sights of his community, to gather facts for the people to consider, to motivate thoughtful consideration, and to do many other things. A lagging or lackluster school is very likely in the image of a lagging or lackluster administrator. Facilitating the develop-

Procurement of Personnel and Material

Once goals and policies have led to development of the program, the purpose of educational administration is to secure resources—human and material—to make the program of teaching and learning work. What kinds of teachers and other professional personnel does the program require? What physical facilities are needed to house the program? What supplies and equipment do teachers and pupils need to make the program of teaching and learning succeed? What nonteaching personnel are needed, and what supplies and equipment will they need to support the program?

These questions—and many others—are faced by the principal. After they are answered, the principal is responsible for creating a situation wherein personnel and material are coordinated, balanced, and related to produce a coherent program of teaching and learning rather than a hodgepodge of isolated activities.

Teaching and Learning

Finally, we return to the basic purposes of the school—teaching and learning. *The secondary school principal is not administering a factory nor an advertising agency—he is administering a school. All his efforts must somehow be related to the basic purpose of the school—teaching and learning. The school he administers is not the only educating agency in his community, but it is a unique agency charged by the people with particular teaching-learning responsibilities. It is to the meeting of these responsibilities, to leading the school to the meeting of these responsibilities, that the educational administrator devotes his professional life.*

THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS

✓ We have examined the meanings of leadership in general and in a democracy and the purposes of secondary school administration. In meeting these purposes, the principal will need to perform many tasks. The task areas are discussed in detail in Part Two of this volume and include such things as instructional leadership, staff personnel administration, and the like. In performing in any or in all of these task areas, the administrator will need to follow the steps of the administrative process. This process is essentially the same whether the administrator is attacking a problem in the area of school-community relations or a problem in the area of school

the various alternatives that may lead to a solution to the problem, and, finally, to choose from among these alternatives one to pursue. This is decision-making.

Some students of administration define the entire field as a job of decision-making. It is true that each of the steps in the administrative process requires that certain alternatives be considered and that certain choices be made. It is possible, then, to define the total process as one of decision-making. We have rejected this usage, however, because we feel that it leads to a lack of clarity in describing the process. Perhaps the best way to illustrate our thinking would be to speak of "capital D" decision-making and "small d" decision-making. As a step in the administrative process, we are thinking of "capital D" decision-making—that decision-making that involves a choice of alternatives for the solution of an institutional (in our case, a school) problem. Once this "capital D" decision has been made, the other steps of the process come into play. In these steps, decision-making is necessary, but it is subsidiary to the steps of the process rather than being the major step in these processes. This decision-making is of the "small d" variety.

Decision-making is a step in the administrative process, but it is not something that the administrator should do in isolation. The problem must be clarified, information gathered about it, and the alternatives defined. Each of these phases of decision-making should involve people other than the administrator. Suppose, for example, that the problem centers about high school-college articulation. The principal believes that the high school which he administers is not articulated well with certain colleges and universities. In clarifying this problem and in defining alternative courses of action to remedy the situation, the principal will need information and advice from teachers, graduates, college personnel, to name just a few. The final choice among alternatives may be made by the principal, but in the process many people have been involved and the decision will probably be a school decision rather than only the principal's decision.

Programming

Once a course of action has been chosen, something must be done about it. The course of action decided upon will no doubt require the participation of certain people, the use of certain supplies and equipment, the use of some space, and—without fail—budgetary provisions. The availability of these items will have entered into the thinking of the administrator

It may be necessary for the administrator to exert certain pressures to achieve some results with some people, but if pressure becomes his only means of stimulation, it will, in the long run, be hampered. Stimulation is essentially a matter of building attitudes. Although pressure may get one job done, it may also build attitudes that will make future stimulation extremely difficult.

Coordination

As any high school principal will gladly testify, any single action in a high school is related to a whole series of other events. Although this fact is considered and, hopefully, taken care of in the programming phase of the administrative process, the principal must constantly be aware of the need for coordinating actions once they are begun. In our example of the problem of high school-college articulation, it was apparent that more than one person would be involved in the actions proposed to help solve the problem. The principal needs to assure himself that these people are working together, that supplies and equipment are arriving as planned, that other parts of the school program are not being handicapped by actions taken to solve this one problem, and that, in general, the new activities are blending into the total program of the school.

One of the most difficult tasks of any administrator, and particularly of the high school principal, is to "keep in harness" a team of professional staff members, each of whom is legitimately striving to further a special field of interest and each of whom is likely to feel that his field of interest is more important than any others in reaching the goals. The better the staff, the more difficult this coordination process becomes. Many times a teacher will become so engrossed in a new venture that even though this venture represents but a portion of that teacher's assignment, it is given an undue amount of time and effort by the teacher. The principal, as he fulfills the requirements of the coordinating phase of the administrative process, is the person who must keep an eye on the total school operation as it relates to the complex of goals. He needs to strive for balance, without unduly hampering the enthusiasm of a good teaching staff.

It is also necessary for the principal to keep abreast of activities outside of the school that may need to be coordinated with in-school programs. It may be, for example, that a group of colleges might start new freshmen programs in an effort to improve high school-college articulation. How do these relate to the new high school programs? Are the gaps

being narrowed or widened? Is unnecessary duplication introduced? Coordination is more than an intramural affair. The principal will find this phase of the administrative process a challenging and demanding part of his work.

Appraising

The final step in the administrative process, and a step that completes a circular rather than a straight-line process, is appraising. It is here that the administrator must ask himself some crucial questions; and it is here that invariably new problems will be identified, which lead in turn to another round through the administrative process. A decision has been made, a program established, and action stimulated and coordinated. All of this was done for a purpose. The appraising phase represents an effort to determine the extent to which all of this has actually met the purpose.

Appraising is perhaps the least well done phase of the administrative process in the schools. This is true not because educational administrators do not believe in appraising school activities, but primarily because the need for appraising is recognized too late to build a framework for appraisal into activities. Appraising must be done in terms of some predetermined criteria—some yardsticks, if you will, to measure change. Although the term "criteria" may seem quite "textbookish," the concept it connotes is a most practical one.

Take our earlier example. The principal wanted to do something to improve high school-college articulation. If he is to be able to appraise the effectiveness of the actions he takes or others take to improve this articulation, he must have a measuring device for this appraisal. Before the new efforts are started, he will need to know the state of articulation between his high school and the colleges concerned. This state of articulation will need to be expressed in terms of some observable factors, for example, how do the graduates of his high school succeed, in terms of grade point averages, in their freshman year at college? Or, what percentage of the graduates from his high school who enter college continue on to earn a bachelor's degree? Or again, how do the graduates of his high school succeed in terms of grade averages in various subject-matter fields in college? These are not presented as ideal measures of high school-college articulation, but are merely examples of the kinds of data that are necessary to provide a base line for appraisal.

The program designed to improve articulation should be designed to bring about some specific changes from the base line. In other words,

today our situation in terms of these factors is "thus and so"; after a few months or years of the new program, we want our situation in terms of these factors to be "this." Appraising, then, becomes a matter of determining the extent to which actual progress from the base line is equivalent to *desired progress*. The factors used to define the baseline plus some quantitative and qualitative statements of desired progress are the criteria that underlie the appraising phase of the administrative process.

It is important to recognize some measure of institutional stability. Suppose, for example, that real progress is achieved in improving the college records of the graduates from a high school, but that the teachers of courses not considered to be "college preparatory" feel that they are being ignored, that they are not receiving their share of the budget, and that guidance counselors are ignoring the noncollegebound student. These latter judgments may be of much greater long-range importance than is the fact of the improved college records.

Appraising, then, involves a consideration of both long- and short-range goals. It should also involve a consideration of the process used in developing the program being appraised. The program may appear to be successful, but was it established with a minimum of wasted effort or of "spinning of wheels"? Were the right people involved at the right time in establishing the program? Were details involving the requisition of supplies or the procurement of equipment handled with dispatch? These and other questions need to be asked as the administrative process itself is appraised.

In brief, then, the appraising phase of the administrative process involves an appraisal of the effectiveness of a specific course of action in meeting a specific problem, an appraisal of the degree to which a specific course of action has influenced the way in which a school proceeds toward long-range goals, and an appraisal of the way in which the administrative process functioned during the development and implementation of the specific course of action. This is not a job to be handled single-handedly by the administrator. Here, again, many people will need to be involved.

One final word about appraising needs to be said. Too often we neglect to appraise school activities on the grounds that it is not possible to be objective enough. All appraising has subjective features. The very definition of what we will consider to be improvement (in other words, our choice of criteria) is a judgmental process based on certain professional beliefs, understandings, and aspirations. Appraising will never be wholly objective. Relative values must be assigned certain findings, and progress

2. Describe the various sources of authority of a secondary school principal.
3. Some teachers express themselves as being in favor of a principal who is an "enlightened dictator." How would you account for this preference? Do you feel that some principals need to fit this description? Why or why not?
4. Describe some methods that you feel would be effective in stimulating teachers to participate in community affairs in a medium-sized or small city or town.
5. Briefly outline an administrative problem and indicate the ways in which the steps of the administrative process would be followed in working with this problem and the proposed solution.

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COMPONENTS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

THERE ARE GENERALIZED ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESSES common to the major fields of government, business, the military, and education. Perceptive skill in planning, coordinating, and appraising enables an individual to shift with reasonable success from field to field. Each major organization in our society, however, has its unique purposes. As a result, specific areas of operation are designed to facilitate achievement of the organization's objectives. Each administrator, in every enterprise, therefore, must have competence in those "bread and butter" task areas that are central to the organization. How much and what kind of competence is needed, and in how many of the areas, are dependent upon many factors. Basically, this question is resolved by determining whether the administrator is to work as a generalist or as a specialist. This in turn is often determined by the organizational structure. In the secondary school, for example, much depends on whether or not a principal is directly responsible for leadership in all of the task areas, and whether he alone holds this responsibility. In this case, of course, he functions as a generalist. In a more structured

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school, one or more assistant or vice principals might be assigned to specific areas of responsibility. In addition, deans or counselors or both might be available. Supervisors or directors in such areas as curriculum, might also exist as staff or line personnel in the superintendent's office, who likewise would have responsibilities in specified areas. In the organizational activities, where these conditions existed, the specialities of the administrative staff would probably be used in determining functional working areas. The principal, therefore, would still, in all likelihood, have over-all administrative responsibilities of coordination in the specific task areas, but his personal leadership role might be directed to a constricted range of them. In this case, he becomes more of a specialist.

The vast majority of secondary school principals function as generalists. Their direct leadership is needed in each of the task areas. For that reason, half of this book is devoted to a comprehensive analysis of each of those task areas. To most readers, who probably will become generalists or who already are acting as such, the entire book will be appropriate. Task areas are discussed in depth, however, with the hope that the specialist can read selectively as his needs direct him.

In Chapter 3 we differentiated between administrative processes and administrative tasks. Processes are skills that are generally applicable to all administrators. Since the processes in a sense are action processes, however, it is obvious that they must have a specific area of application. The area of application relates them purposefully to the achievement of specific organizational objectives. The first purpose of this chapter, then, is to provide an over-all view of those working areas that are particularly relevant to the secondary school administrator: instructional leadership, staff personnel, pupil personnel, financial and facilities management, and school-community relationships. It is important that the administrator have competence in each of these fields and understand the direct relationship between activities in them and the accomplishment of secondary school objectives.

Anyone sensitive to the educational scene knows at a glance that these task areas are not the unique province of the secondary school administrator. They could be listed just as validly as task areas for elementary principals and superintendents. Specific skills representing areas of emphasis, however, are more obvious as the objectives become manifest for each level of operation and are related to the unique characteristics of pupils, attendance areas, and many other factors.

TASK AREAS IN BROAD FOCUS

Discussion of the task areas, then, will be geared to their broad aspects in this chapter, leaving their complexities and many of their specifics to later analysis. It is important for the potential administrator to gain an over-all view of those areas in which he is apt to spend major amounts of time. At the same time, it is obvious that each task area is of sufficient scope to require a chapter for its presentation.

As we direct attention to the specific ways in which the secondary school administrator relates himself to the task areas, a few things can be highlighted at the outset. As he works in each area, it is necessary for him to know, for example, the policy boundaries within which he is operating. Not being the executive officer of the board of education, which sets the broad policy framework for the system, he must become knowledgeable about the implications of the policy for the work he does in the task areas. Within the existing school district structure, the sensitive and alert secondary school administrator will know those areas in which he has virtually autonomous operation, or at least responsibility for operation. Also, he will know the degree to which this exists for others, administrative, teaching, and service personnel within the system. In addition, he will be alert to the way in which this responsibility is exercised. Only by knowing these things will he be able to discharge his responsibilities by planning, in a coordinated fashion, the activities in which he and others engage.

To operate successfully in the task areas, the secondary school administrator must have a flair for dealing with the specifics that abound in them day by day. One need but turn to a few of the research studies done on this question to see their multifarious character.¹ They illustrate dramatically how the successful administrator must bring into play an adept facility with the administrative processes, particularly decision-making, coordinating, and appraising. Without these skills, secondary school administrators either flounder in the swamp of countless problems, unable to pull away from them, or they become addicted to what has been called the "administrator's malady," an inordinate fondness for the minutiae. Either can cause the administrator to operate far short of the leadership performance required.

What is needed, then, is an administrator who feels the challenge of the specific problem, who knows how to assess its relative importance

¹ For example, see Dean O. Clark, "Critical Areas in the Administrative Behavior of High School Principals" (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, unpublished doctoral dissertation, 1956).

in the total scheme of things, and who can bring about its solution by an effective use of the skills of those who should be involved in working it through. Quite often, he is not a direct participant in the process, so his satisfactions in those instances must come in helping to set the conditions in which others can work effectively. By operating this way, the administrator does not use each moment as an assault upon a wave of day-by-day problems. Rather, time becomes available for long-range planning, which is essential for maximum goal achievement.

Because the administrative processes must be related to the task areas, the second major focus of this chapter will be on an element common to all of them—organization. Organizational skill is a key that unlocks many doors for meaningful, effective administrative action. Organizational skill not only will be discussed broadly, but also many specific illustrations will be given to demonstrate its applicability.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE TASKS

Instructional Leadership

The primary purpose of leadership is to facilitate teaching and learning in the secondary schools. To perform effective instructional leadership, the secondary school administrator must be able to trace a direct relationship between the acts in which he engages and the improvement of teaching and learning conditions. At times this line may be nearly indistinguishable, but the administrator should be able to see the relationship and help others to see it. This is not to imply that his leadership function becomes a vehicle by which to put his own personal views about the curriculum into operation. His views and professional commitments are important, and he need not feel a reluctance to express them; but others on the staff, in the student body, in the community, and in the profession of education also have contributions to make. His challenge, primarily, becomes that of creating conditions under which the contributors can work productively, of helping to assess the conditions under which curriculum development can take place, of marshalling evidence that becomes part of the working material of curriculum development.

As a facilitator of curriculum development, the administrator is responsible for recognizing the potentials of those individuals involved in the teaching-learning process and for providing the conditions in which sustained creative effort can take place. In leading, he must understand

that curriculum development is an on-going process, when the end and the beginning become relatively unimportant. Herein lies one of his greatest challenges, because people strive to find a sense of security in constants. A curriculum committee, for example, may take for its working period a given point in time. The type of program that it may develop, then, sometimes can become a reflection of those things most obvious—a guideline established by a state department of education, a program laid out clearly in scope and sequence by a series of textbooks, a quintessence of time-honored learning experiences that have shown their value by persistence. These may or may not represent a curriculum geared to the needs of the students or the community served by the school. It is virtually certain, however, that the needs will not be served if the curriculum becomes fixed in time. Only as it becomes a fluid, on-going experience can it be vital and meaningful and perform the function for which it is intended. Even those learning experiences, sensed as timeless in their importance, come through the stream of history to take on new meanings when viewed in the perspective of each succeeding age. But security in change requires a type of maturity toward which we all must strive. Far easier is it to strike off a section of experience that has become meaningful and act as if it never will, or never should, change.

How is instructional leadership performed when beset by admittedly formidable obstacles? Obviously, the secondary school administrator cannot hope to know, in depth, the content of each of the teaching areas in the school. This is not the avenue through which effective instructional leadership very often passes. As a matter of fact, it is even conceivable that the administrator might be a respected and skilled historian and yet give poor leadership to the development of a social studies program in the secondary schools. What is needed for competent instructional leadership is a person who understands the learning processes of adolescent youngsters and who is a sensitive interpreter of the community, the state, the nation, and the world. Equipped with these kinds of understandings and working sensitively with people, the administrator can make meaningful contributions to the development of a dynamic curriculum program.

The administrator must not become dismayed at what appears to be a cyclical process. Curriculum development, in this dynamic sense, is going from objectives to program to evaluation to revision and so on, through the whole process again. This is not to imply that the process takes on herculean proportions, or that neat starting points are always obvious or the same. The entire curriculum is in broad focus very infre-

activities around the first week of school, when the obvious orientation matters are paraded in a sometimes bewildering procession. After a new teacher has been exposed to "the ropes," it is often assumed that orientation is over.

A greater challenge, however, lies in planning and conducting over time a series of experiences designed to build up competence and strong professional relationships in the new staff person. Here, again, a competent administrator often exercises leadership by enlisting the assistance of the staff. These activities, often mutually planned, are carried out within the limits of agreements previously established. Thus, there is purposeful movement toward the goal of helping the newcomer to adjust as soon as possible and to increase his professional productivity while experiencing personal satisfaction at the same time.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH. The principal's responsibility does not end, of course, with the new staff member. Of even more importance is the role he plays in facilitating the continued professional growth of the more experienced colleagues with whom he serves. In most school systems, the principal has a direct and specified responsibility in the area of staff evaluation. Quite frequently, though, reports are sought only for those who are not as yet on tenure. Where this is the case, the principal, because of other pressures, is often tempted to let his responsibility to the rest of the staff go by default. Where this has been true for some time, there can be genuine resistance to a plan for instituting a general evaluation program. Staff members, particularly those on tenure, often enjoy "not being bothered" and frequently can make quite a vocal rationalization about their "diplomatic immunity." This is an unfortunate situation. Almost sole authority, or at least control over the learning situation, and the resultant pleasure from having arrived at this state, can blunt anyone's effectiveness who upon occasion is not helped systematically to evaluate the job to be done and how he is doing it.

When a program of evaluation for continued professional growth exists, it can work in an ideal direction only if mutual respect exists between the teacher and the administrator. Without this, the program becomes a perfunctory pass at effectiveness. Real leadership is required to engender the confidence that must underlie such a program. Mutual agreement must exist about purposes and methods of a program of professional growth and evaluation.

Where such a program is not in operation, an administrator can

pave the way for its development by demonstrating his own willingness to grow. There are many ways in which this can be done, but one of the most demonstrable and meaningful of them is to solicit the help of the staff on matters that are of concern to them. This must result in action, where staff members have played a part in determining its course, else they soon will feel that conferences and meetings are just window-dressing and that the principal "will go ahead and do what he wishes anyhow." A quality of human relationships develops in this process that soon promotes the kind of candor that people of good will must bring to the solution of those mutual problems confronting them.

SUPERVISION. It would be of little value to add but one more exhortation about the vital importance of the secondary school administrator's responsibility to supervise instruction. This in itself might compound already apparent feelings of guilt held by those of this profession. Illustrative of this situation is the often-heard statement that principals feel that supervision is their most important single function, but because of the pressure of other duties it is the very one to which they devote the least amount of time. Since this problem will be dealt with extensively in Chapter 5, very little elaboration of it is appropriate here. Suffice it for the moment to say that if this responsibility is to be met, the principal must first utilize his organizational skills effectively to make available the time required by this activity. It is important at this point to stress, though, that if the administrator is to supervise instruction effectively, he must work with a guide of mutually recognized and developed objectives. When a professional staff has threshed out some purposes of education in the secondary schools to which they as members can subscribe, points of destination become evident and progress toward reaching them more easily can be measured.

It is important for the administrator to recognize that there must be flexibility in the teaching-learning process. This is not a Procrustean task, lopping off or stretching out, as he makes his supervisory rounds, those who fail to fit into the mold that he feels is most desirable. Within any secondary school there is room for diversity in teaching-learning methods and even for modifications in the philosophy to which the staff may subscribe in broad outline. Some members of the staff, for instance, may have developed an ability to relate themselves most effectively to larger groups of students primarily through the use of a well-developed lecture style. If this is their most efficient method, the administrator should, in his role

as a supervisor of instruction, help provide the circumstances in which this particular teaching talent can best operate. This assistance could appear in many forms. One of the most obvious would be in scheduling. There are optimum times of the day when pupils are more receptive to the lecture method, and the sensitive principal can do his best to set up a schedule that permits such a teacher to receive youngsters then.

The job of the principal, as a supervisor of instruction, is to use his knowledge of learning patterns and of psychological growth of secondary school students to the best possible advantage as he assesses the personalities and abilities of members of the instructional staff. As he consults with the staff, he should focus attention on the particular learning problem that groups or individual students are experiencing, not the inability of the teacher to solve (or be willing to try to solve) problems x or y. To dwell on this latter theme is to inject a threat to all but those with sufficient maturity. The principal must work with members of the staff so that they will become working partners in setting sensible ground rules for the learning process and in experimenting with flexible ways of solving problems. Also, the principal and the staff members must agree on the type of evidence that will be recognized as admissible that some progress is being made. Every supervisor needs to be on his guard against teachers shifting over to him those pupils who represent particularly knotty learning problems. Teachers, with the many problems confronting them, are apt to do this, particularly if it is the principal who is playing the supervisor's role.

Effective supervision by the principal, then, depends upon his using his organizational skills to provide the time for accomplishing the task, working with the staff to develop agreements about the jobs to be done, developing some measuring sticks that will provide evidence that a problem exists and that some progress is being made toward its solution, and upon working with staff and pupils in such a way that both become psychologically ready for assuming the responsibility that both must bring to the particular teaching-learning job to be done.

IMPORTANCE OF POLICY DEVELOPMENT. Even in education, where professionally trained people take a large measure of individual responsibility for determining key teaching-learning variables in the classroom, it is still necessary to have rules by which to live. Although most policies affecting personnel throughout an entire school system are not developed at any one building level, there is usually some involvement by the staff of a building or by selected representatives of the staff. A principal can often help in

this process by facilitating such things as opinion-sampling of the entire group and by participating in forums where ideas are being sought or tentative recommendations considered. In addition, each building needs a policy that is tailored to the particular conditions that exist there. Development of this kind of policy affords a much more direct leadership challenge to the principal. Such policies range from a philosophy for the school to such things as determining procedures to follow in taking disciplinary action against some recalcitrant pupil.

Often a principal can make the mistake of feeling that structure is antithetical to democratic administration, especially where capable professional people are concerned. Often, too, he learns that this assumption breaks down. To hammer out sensible policy, by which capable, intelligent people agree to live, is a difficult process, particularly when a considerable divergence of opinion exists, but the gains far outweigh the effort expended. Not only is more efficient operation possible, but learning opportunities are enhanced, too, because responsibilities are clarified, channels of communication are clear, and these same intelligent people are freed from the necessity of using their time and energy to clear away or to work around the underbrush of confusion.

Pupil Personnel

In some ways, the work the secondary school administrator does in the pupil personnel area is the most critical aspect of his varied responsibilities. We can almost say that the sole purpose of the secondary school is to educate teen-age pupils. The administrator's central concern, therefore, is to provide an organization that promotes optimum learning experiences for these youth. Chapter 2 stressed how our society has taken the position that its young people should have more and more education. This has been reflected in our compulsory attendance laws, which now almost universally require all educable youth to attend school until they are sixteen years of age. As every teacher knows, however, it takes far more to accomplish a creditable job of education than mere physical presence. *Providing the "far more" is a responsibility that must be shared by many, but it is a particularly acute one for the secondary school administrator.*

Often the principal can gain the support of some staff members and that of those in the broader community who have their particular interpretation of the pristine values prized by our society if he takes the stand that the school's primary responsibility is to provide the opportunity for

youngsters who value that opportunity to receive a good basic education. It is our job to go this far, bringing to bear the most productive effort we can, becomes the position of those who react this way, and it is the responsibility of the student to travel the remaining mile. This position should not necessarily be disparaged. It is an attractive position, which too many may be tempted to take too hastily. A careful appraisal of the true cost of this position must be made, however, because to take it should be the result of a calculated assessment of the risk involved.

DEVELOPING UNDERSTANDING OF PURPOSES. The fundamental job of the school is to work productively with the student so that he increasingly is able to see the "whys" of learning. As students of human behavior, we all know that man is not always disposed to do something simply because someone in authority tells him it is for his own welfare. Teenagers in particular are not authority prone. The positions they take must be of their own choosing before they are willing to unleash the astounding sources of energy that they seem at times to possess. Teaching, then, often has as its major task that of helping these young people to unlock motivational doors. A sensitive balance of external and internal pressures is needed to jar these doors loose.

Lest this position be construed as too visionary or rebellious, it is important to stress here the point about externals. These often are the easiest to cope with, because they are so apparent. It often is very surprising, however, how they are neglected. Because they are neglected, the total atmosphere for effective learning is sometimes seriously impaired. An efficient plan for pupil accounting is of utmost importance. Having pupils where they are supposed to be, day-by-day and class-by-class, on time, is excellent for the morale of both teachers and students. Developing such a plan requires careful attention to detail and organization, but the time spent by the administrator, working with those to be affected by the plan, is most productive.

In this same category is the plan for scheduling. Many principals feel that the development of a master plan for scheduling and a working of it through to a schedule for each teacher and pupil in the building is the most demanding task that confronts them year in and year out. For the beginning administrator this is often an awesome responsibility. Another problem is that of making enrollment projections. Frequently, the principal works with others—the superintendent of schools, members of the central administrative staff, or with elementary principals—to accomplish

this task. In some aspects of the problem, however, he plays the crucial role. For instance, in secondary schools of all sizes, but particularly in the larger ones, it is very important to keep an accurate count of dropout figures and to assess as early as possible what retention figures will exist by classes and by subject-matter areas. This is especially important if the subject is one that the pupil is required to pass for graduation. Such information is vital to the accurate projection of how many teachers will be needed in what areas, how individual pupil-projected curriculum plans will be affected, and how much space and what quantity of specific materials will be required. Scrupulous attention to these details pays off in morale and efficiency. These, in turn, can affect the "tone for learning," which is so important.

PUPIL PERSONNEL POLICIES. Another pupil personnel area where the administrator's leadership skills are needed lies in the development of policy that becomes the guide for pupil behavior. From his knowledge of people, again, he realizes that these guides will be more useful if those who will be affected by them have some voice in determining what they are. Depending upon staff skills, the needs of the situation, and other factors, the principal's role in this process may be direct, indirect, or more likely a combination of the two. To have these guides, preferably in written form, is important, though, and the administrator has an obligation to see that they are developed. Structure is necessary, and it is often sought by teenage youngsters, but it works best if they feel it is fair and appropriate.

GUIDANCE. Just as a plan needs to be developed for the regulation of group behavior according to sensible patterns, it is exceedingly important for the individual pupil to work out an educational program for himself. This raises the problem of guidance, which can be approached in many ways. Choosing the most appropriate one requires an assessment of many conditions, which will be discussed later in greater detail. For the moment, however, it is important to see the problem broadly. Rarely does the individual pupil know himself in relation to his long-range needs well enough to do this planning alone. The school, therefore, has a responsibility to assist him with this problem, and the administrator has an obligation to see that the best possible effort is made.

Some kinds of problems, such as those regarding individual adjustment and making the best use of personal potential, obviously can be grouped. Were this not so, the schools would have an almost insurmountable task. Even those pupils who by some measurement can be classified

as atypical have enough common characteristics to permit the group approach. Often the job of the principal is that of gathering evidence that these youngsters are not able to make progress in the usual learning experiences and of seeing if there are enough pupils to justify the establishment of different organizational plans geared to the unique problems of the atypical. The result of this kind of effort is often the establishment of special classes for the mentally accelerated or retarded and for those who have physical or emotional impairments. In this way, the structure of the secondary school becomes a flexible instrument that can be molded to provide the best possible setting for productive learning.

Briefly, too, it should be mentioned that the school needs to keep a discerning eye on the types of experiences that the students will have upon terminating, either by dropping out of school or by completing their prescribed program of study. Watchful of those forces, the school often can gear its program in a more meaningful manner. Thousands of youngsters of high school age continue to terminate their formal programs of education short of completion. Until society wills otherwise, most schools still have the obligation to retain the educable until age sixteen and in many states until age eighteen. Work needs to be done here, and the administrator has a challenge he cannot slough off. For many students, too, skills must be acquired that will permit them to profit from college and university experiences. Many other students plan to go directly into business and industrial life. The demands presented by each of these possibilities require, in many ways, preparatory kinds of activities that become, at least in part, the working province of the secondary school. For many, too, additional educational experiences are sought after high school that seem not to be available in other institutions. Increasingly, then, the lights of secondary schools are burning as adult education classes are conducted in response to community needs.

The challenge of the secondary school administrator, then, lies in his recognition of the fact that the school exists for the learner, and that it is his task to see that the best possible learning experiences are available.

Finance and Facilities Management

With the increased ground swell of post World War II youngsters currently beginning to flood the secondary schools, serious problems in the finance and facilities areas demand consideration. Because of the direct relationship between program and money, the fiscal planning and manage-

ment functions of the secondary school administrator are always significant. Basic to efficient operation in these areas is the understanding that exists between the principal and the central administration about financial responsibilities and procedures. This understanding is often the starting point of a new administrator as he seeks to develop his competence in this area of his operations.

BUDGET-MAKING. *In most school systems the principal is given responsibilities in annual budget-making. Some kinds of data, necessary for the development of the annual budget, can be obtained most easily from him. This is especially true in reference to the instructional materials needed at the secondary level. To discharge this responsibility, the principal can avoid the frenzy of meeting deadlines by last moment scurrying if he has a well-planned inventory system that will reveal the amount and condition of instructional materials on hand. It is most advisable, in addition, to enlist the staff's assistance in the preparation of requests for instructional materials. To do this efficiently, it is helpful to work from a budget that designates the amounts available to individual staff members or, more likely, to various instructional areas. Working with individual teachers or committees the administrator can help to get these requests into workable form. It is well to work from the latest catalogues available, so that price estimates are accurate as possible. If, as is likely, the material will be up for bidding, it helps, too, to have specifications developed and an indication of the purposes to be served by the material. This can be of considerable assistance to the superintendent of schools or school business official, who may be involved in the mechanics of purchasing, often during the summer months when the instructional staff is not available to provide the necessary information. Then, too, not all budgetary requests can be authorized, because of the gap that often exists between the asking and the granted budgets and because of contingencies that could not have been foreseen or forestalled. To ensure that those items ordered are those that are most needed, a priority list of requests should be available. The principal, again, needs to develop this with the staff.*

RESPONSIBILITY FOR INTERNAL ACCOUNTS. Other financial areas become sizeable responsibilities for the secondary school administrator. Most high schools, for example, have substantial internal accounts. These include athletic funds, student activity money, cafeteria operation, supply store accounts, and often many others. One of the wisest things a new administrator can do is to make sure that an audit of these accounts has been made

shortly before he assumes his position. A clear understanding of his accountability in the financial area is one of the first things the principal should work out with the superintendent. Very often, in all but larger secondary schools, the principal has direct financial responsibilities. This means that he should operate under a fidelity bond. Periodic financial reports need to be prepared and transmitted to the superintendent, and often to others, such as an athletic board. In addition, an annual, outside audit is essential.

Because many of the funds with which the principal deals are earmarked, careful controls have to be developed. Many problems occur because of the absence of a systematized plan and because much of the business comes at a time when students, often, and teachers, sometimes, are not psychologically geared to careful operation. One of the most obvious cases is the senior class account. Anyone who has worked with this class knows the activity surrounding the senior prom, baccalaureate, and commencement. Unless a warrant and voucher plan has been carefully developed, and unless those having responsibilities are particularly vigilant, loose practices during this period can confuse the accounting.

PLANNING USE OF FACILITIES. In the physical facilities area, increased problems emerge at times of booming enrollments. During a period of total pupil increases, the impact is felt first at the elementary level. Many communities have found it necessary to expand their facilities first in this direction. As a consequence, they have moved close to their bonding limits for capital outlay and have not had sufficient time to recover, through normal amortization, to turn their attention to added facilities at the secondary level. With heightening demands on the secondary schools, maintenance factors and the most efficient use of existing facilities have taken on added importance. A particular challenge confronts the secondary school administrator during these times, because he must be especially alert to maximum usage of space, on the one hand, and mindful that the purpose of facilities lies in the contribution they make to the learning program, on the other hand. Adaptability is a central concern as he analyzes existing space and conjectures about the purposes that might be served. Value questions come to the fore, and decisions often have to be made in terms of those values; else expediency rules and the price is frequently a heavy one. Should a study hall overflow be moved to the library or not is a question that illustrates this kind of problem. Expediency requires a realistic

appraisal, but the administrator must weigh in his decision the requirements posed by the over-all learning program.

Working with the central administration, the administrator of the secondary school also helps to define how the school facilities are to be used. In many communities, the secondary school is the most frequently sought location for meetings. Although use of the school as a community center has many desirable features to commend it, there are potential problems that should not be ignored. In conflict situations, for instance, do school or school-related activities take precedence over those activities that are not school-related? Unless a policy has been clarified, situations detrimental to good public relations can easily arise.

Policies, too, are most applicable for staff and student use of facilities. Mobile facilities, such as projectors, need a plan for usage and care. Student use of the facilities requires coordinated action, too, for bothersome flurries often occur when two groups inadvertently get scheduled into one place at one time.

Protective maintenance is extremely important, especially when the existing facilities are approaching maximum usage. Whether the custodian is responsible directly to the principal or to someone on the central staff level, such as a school business official, there must be close operating lines between the principal and the custodian. For morale and productivity reasons, the principal must develop some standard procedures regarding work orders. In many schools there seems to be a belief that the custodian is "fair game in season," subject to the beck and call of teachers and pupils alike. A room that is too warm for one teacher becomes too cool for the next to occupy it, so it is obviously important for common working agreements, based on good sense and a respect for the rights of the custodian as a person. Policy is also necessary to provide guides by which students must live in reference to their responsibilities to the physical facilities of the school. Schools in which pupils have some role in determining the rules defining their responsibilities seem to have the most success in this area.

Careful attention to maintenance details pays good dividends for the secondary school administrator. Not only are activities coordinated by the development of a good plan, but the effort results in increased teacher and student morale. It is a common dictum that when many live under the same roof, a respect for the rights of others is a must to forestall confusion and petty bickering. In the broad sense, the high school in most communi-

ties is regarded somewhat as a symbol, and excellent public relations often exist when the symbol is well-groomed, an object of pride.

School-Community Relationships

Because the secondary school is a status symbol in most communities, problems of the nature that status symbols fall heir to often accrue. Some of these problems are those over which the administrator often has very little control, but even these pose a responsibility for him. An example of this would be a community that tends to take an inordinate interest in its athletic teams. The school's fortunes, in the community's eyes, tend to rise or fall with the success or failure of these teams. Although this is a *difficult kind of problem*, the resourceful principal, who realizes that people who are capable of taking intense pride in one thing can have enough of that characteristic to let it spill over to other things if they are approached in the right manner, can make some headway. For example, we've seen that booster clubs formed to support an athletic program can become interested in promoting speech programs, scholastic recognition banquets, and other affairs of this nature.

In a real sense, the secondary school reflects the needs of a community. Often it is capable of giving expression to its sometimes inarticulate aspirations. The secondary school administrator needs to understand these diverse needs, if they are to become *articulate enough and sufficiently recognized* to find their way into meaningful programs. No community is too small, for example, to be devoid of organizations and agencies. These may be structured to promote social, service, or welfare functions. These organizations are usually eager to find ways by which they can cooperate with the local school. Through them can indigent children receive care, students be given new outlets for searching out vocational opportunities, classes be given access to field trips that relate meaningfully to that which they are studying. In this age, when a hue and cry is often raised over the issue, "should the schools be all things to all people," here are concrete ways in which the school and community can develop a shared responsibility for the task in which they have a common interest.

ORGANIZATION—A VITAL ADMINISTRATIVE SKILL

Rarely does a single factor account for an individual's success or failure in the performance of his job. Despite the implied complexity of the issue,

though, key skills can be isolated. To highlight our discussion of the basic task areas in secondary school administration, we have chosen to deal rather extensively with organizational skill, for it seems to be central to success or failure. Although, to be sure, there are some occasional cases to the contrary, an analysis of the careers of people who have been outstanding administrators reveals a common thread linking them together—an ability to get important things done well, on time. Further analysis shows that this is no intangible, esoteric trait, the prized possession of the insightful few. It starts with a disposition for action. The skill develops as one learns to recognize increasingly what should be done, what are the conditions, and who can and should do the job. The emphasis here is on organizational skill as applied to the job. Later, in Chapter 14, we discuss organization as it pertains to the establishment of structural working relationships for personnel.

Previously we have stated that the task areas of secondary school administration are not solely the province of this particular educational level. It would be simpler if this were true, for then responsibilities would be easier to fix. Because instructional leadership, for example, is needed throughout the entire educational system, it is obvious that if the job is to be done purposefully and systematically some commitments must exist. These can be established easily in those systems that take the time to determine objectives and general agreements about how to go about meeting them. Often these objectives and agreements need to be hammered out building by building because of the diversities in the school-community environment. In a predominantly rural high school, for instance, the instructional leadership demanded of the principal might differ markedly from that exercised by the principal of a suburban school.

Aspects of Organizational Skill

Developing organizational skill has a logical starting point. It begins at the level of the jobs to be done. The prior experience of the new principal, whether it has been administrative in nature or not, tells him that some of these jobs are relatively constant from year to year and from school to school. For instance, each state has minimum requirements for graduation. Organization to accomplish this objective is a relatively simple matter of scheduling the required courses at times when they are available to those who need them and of having them taught by teachers certified to do so.

Quantitative aspects of organization pose relatively few problems

in comparison to those that arise from qualitative considerations, for it is in this area that value judgments are more prevalent. Being able to define with clarity the jobs to be done has the essential complement of identifying and assigning to them the individuals who are best able to accomplish them. Here is where qualitative judgments enter the picture, for it is a common temptation in the secondary school, with its more characteristic pattern of inflexibility, to have personnel continue to serve in roles to which they have been assigned previously. Teachers easily can become identified with a specific subject-matter field, often at a particular level, or with such activities as sponsoring a class, directing plays, or advising the student council. Either a person becomes so entrenched in one of these positions that it becomes a delicate administrative problem even to raise the question of whether continued assignment is in the best interests of all concerned, or the situation lingers on by default, and certain staff members remain saddled with particular jobs for which they no longer have the interest or skill or both to do justice to them.

MATCHING PEOPLE AND JOBS. The administrative skill needed is that of matching the right person to the right job. Accept for the moment that a general agreement about those objectives with which the secondary school should be concerned and the jobs needed to facilitate their realization has been reached. The key to success, as anyone close to education knows, in the final analysis is the teacher. Therefore, an assessment of how existing staff members can be involved most productively in the jobs of the school is vital. Sometimes these jobs require a specialized skill and more often a multiplicity of skills. Sometimes the jobs require considerable ingenuity and a real capacity to sense the obligations and subtleties of discharging responsibility.

Common sense should guide the administrator in this matching of the person to the job. In the day-by-day interaction of any school, clues about people, their insights, their capacity to take responsible independent action, their ability to work with others, their sense of humor, their leadership potential, their flexibility, their tolerance for handling concurrent assignments with skill and obvious enjoyment, exist in abundance. These are the factors that should be weighed in making decisions about assignments. The clues, however, will not necessarily parade past the principal's desk. He must gather them as he sees people at work, as he talks with them about their concerns, as he observes them under many different circumstances.

The skill of matching people and jobs is fed from the wellspring of observed behavior. This is not to imply that the process is entirely a random one. Systematic ways exist by which people can display what they can do. The principal can develop a system whereby the opportunities for diverse action are expanded. For instance, a teacher should not stay at one level of operation too long. If a general policy of rotation is accepted and developed, a teacher of English might not always be responsible for this subject at the sophomore level. In many high schools a teacher can move into different areas of his major teaching field or into minor fields as well. This is often a refreshing professional experience for the teacher and affords an opportunity for the administrator to see how easily and responsibly the new challenges are met. This same policy can exist relative to committee assignments and cocurriculum responsibilities. It is particularly important to test the flexibility and ingenuity of the new staff person prior to any decision about his tenure contract.

When this atmosphere of testing, observing, and evaluating exists, benefits accrue to the staff member, who has more opportunities to assess his own interests and abilities, and to the administrator, who has the final responsibility for determining assignments. The knowledge that results permits the establishment of a program with a good chance of success, because it is linked to those skills that the staff has. Also, the administrator is able to secure new staff members with abilities that fill the gaps in existing staff skills.

When testing the potential of a staff person for the acceptance of responsibility, it is advisable to choose wisely in terms of the importance of the job to be done and what already is known about the person's ability. Another rule of thumb is to have the task of reasonably short time span when uncertainty exists. Thus, checks can be established that will answer the questions at issue and that ensure that the activity does not stray out of bounds too far. For instance, it would be very unwise for a principal to assign a new staff member the responsibility of advising a senior class and to cut him adrift, so to speak, without guiding policy and without systematic checking to see how the responsibility was being met. It would be far better to observe how a short-term assignment, such as chaperoning a dance or planning a specific activity with a group of students, is met.

ESTABLISHING RIGHT CONDITIONS. It would be naive of the administrator to assume that this phase of the job ends when the right person is linked

with the right assignment. The establishment of optimum conditions can weigh heavily in determining whether or not the job is accomplished; and this is where the principal can play an important role. These conditions are of at least two kinds. The first, and perhaps most important of these, refers to *sanctions and other controls* needed by those assigned to a job. It is frustrating to even the most capable individual to have responsibility for accomplishing an assignment and not to know what authority he can bring to bear. Administrative skill in organization is defeated if no action can be taken without a decision at every turn by the principal. Thus, working agreements or policy understandings need to be established between the principal and the staff member who undertakes a responsibility. When these are clearly developed and understood, the limits become clear and the staff person has some guideposts for decision-making. Another condition is the physical factors conducive to the successful handling of responsibility. To give a committee responsibility to do a job and not to be concerned with where or when they meet or how they get secretarial assistance when needed is to handicap its operation. Therefore, the administrator needs to direct his organizational thinking to creating optimum conditions, under which people have the best opportunity to show what they can do.

PLANNING OFFICE ROUTINES. A cluster of organizational skills exists in the area of the principal's day-by-day office routines. Whether they are managed simply and efficiently is often the difference between an administrator who is a leader of his staff and one who is handicapped because he is chained to his desk. Efficiency can be brought to bear irrespective of the size of the school or of the secretarial staff, or even if the principal has no secretary and must handle the office by himself.

A starting point in this kind of organization is to know what reports are due when, what they will entail, what the district's calendar will be, and other matters of this nature. These, then, can be entered on the school calendar prior to the opening of school. Predated reminders can be inserted on the calendar, and often, depending on the nature of the activity, responsibilities can be assigned. Frequently, in such things as statistical reports involving attendance, for instance, the help of such a group as a mathematics class can be enlisted. This provides a real problem for them, and it sometimes puts the computation in the hands of those who may have more skill in the operation than the principal himself. Developing a

clear set of instructions to the staff about the nature of their involvement on reports often saves much time otherwise spent in face-to-face explanations.

Procedures, too, can be developed for the most efficient method of handling correspondence, telephone calls, and conferences. An administrator, for instance, should not be sought out whenever a call comes for him. Often what he is doing is of considerably greater importance. The person who takes the call can develop discrete, polite procedures for determining if the matter is sufficiently urgent for the principal to be called to the phone. What is primarily needed is for the administrator to indicate how he wishes this to be handled, and a line of direction will be provided for the secretary.

Prescheduling is another important organizational device. It is desirable that certain times, agreed on by the staff, be reserved for general staff meetings. These should be set well in advance, with respect for the rights of the individual. The better developed this calendaring of events is, the less friction is apt to result. Regarding his own activities, the principal, for example, should schedule himself out of the office for the job of supervision in the building. Thus, the most important things are provided for, and sufficient time will later be found for the other jobs that need to be done.

Lest the student think that all problems can be solved through systematic calendaring, reporting, and the like, it is necessary to point out that from such effort a bureaucratic maze that impedes rather than facilitates can easily result. Thus, it is important for the administrator to assess carefully what purpose is served by the activity. He should be mindful that teachers dislike reports and red tape, particularly if they do not see a relationship between what they are doing and that which they feel is most important—their teaching. Consequently, simplicity and efficiency should be the concern of the principal. If a reporting form can be eliminated, it should be dispatched at once. If two can be combined into one, so much the better. If recording can be done in the office by secretarial help with efficiency and purpose, then it should be done this way.

Planning for emergency situations is extremely important. A policy should be made about what should be done in case of accidents. A first-aid station can be established. Often people on the staff have skills in this area. The physical education staff, for instance, by training and by the nature of their jobs, can frequently serve here. Pupil file cards that indi-

cate family physicians and emergency numbers to be called can be established. Plans for evacuation of the building in case of fire, for safety activity when tornado warnings go out, and for other such emergencies, can be developed, communicated, and practiced.

ROLE OF POLICY. Formulation and communication of policy is perhaps one of the most vital of the organizational skills to be developed by the administrator. Information about policy and regulations can be broad in nature, pertaining to the entire staff or student body, or specific, relating perhaps to those who come into the building as substitute teachers. These statements should be developed clearly and concisely and should be available in printed form. They may be communicated through assembly programs, staff meetings, the student newspaper, student councils, home-room or class periods. Good policy, like a good garden, must be reworked. Two-way communication, therefore, is vital, for policy often looks different to those who view it from the underside. This structure can assume different forms, depending on the size and nature of the school. At times it can be the staff as a whole, or an administrative advisory committee selected from or appointed by the staff, or a student council, or a home-room. From these internal sources, the principal can ascertain the degree to which policies and regulations are clear, accepted, and appropriate to the purposes for which they were established. In these forums, too, modifications and new ideas develop that will keep the rules as sensible and functional as possible.

This working with others, though, is a process that must have flexibility and imagination. Organizing is a give-and-take proposition. No matter how systematically a secondary school is organized, the principal must sense the impact of the problem at hand on the person involved. Even though a carefully developed plan may exist for the eventual solution of the problem, it may be preferable to have the matter handled with dispatch by the principal. This sense of assessment and timing is a very important one for an administrator. Without it, a basically skilled administrator, through miscalculation of staff, pupil, or community concerns, can frequently get into serious difficulty.

Schedule-Making

The single outstanding *nemesis* confronting new secondary school administrators is the development of the master schedule. Viewing it from

the incompleting side, it appears to be at times a hopeless maze involving hundreds and sometimes thousands of detailed operations.

This task should be undertaken while the school year is still in progress, leaving as little as possible to the summer months.

If a curriculum guide has not been developed, it is well to start at this point early in the school year. Some of the preliminary work is easily accomplished by checking the requirements of the state department of education and the accrediting association to which the school may belong or wish to belong. These outline required or recommended courses of study. These courses can become the skeleton of the guide. At this same step, the principal can check what has been offered in the school, and whether or not the staff is working in major or minor certified areas. This information is available from existing personnel records, often at the central office, and it offers clues about what courses might be offered.

At this point it is advisable to involve the entire staff, or at least a representative committee of the staff, in the project. If consultative help is available from the central office in independent school districts or from the county office in local school districts, such help should be solicited. A curriculum guide is much more than a listing of required or offered courses, by years or by patterns. Since, in most high schools, options exist for the student, either in choosing a major area for concentrated study or in selecting elective subjects, the curriculum guide and those activities planned for its use must be as clear, explicit, and helpful as possible. It should state what the subject deals with and indicate concisely what major objectives are associated with the subject. Quite likely, the subject may not have been considered in that light for some time if the staff responsible for its teaching has not been asked to verbalize the content and objectives.

In addition to developing this information, the staff can provide other data. For instance, in schedule-making, policies should exist about the number of courses available to each student, at what level courses can be taken, who should be involved in working out a projected schedule for each student, what criteria should determine whether a course should be offered or not, what size classes should be, and other similar questions. The more of these matters that can be threshed out by a principal working with the staff, the easier will be the process of schedule-making. Understanding lends form and order to the job.

STUDENT COURSE SELECTION. Once these decisions have been made, the next step is to have students indicate their subject selections. Guidance at

this point is extremely important, for without it selections are often haphazard and lack a real relationship to the student's needs, abilities, and interests. In most secondary schools, the classroom teacher plays an important role in this guidance process. If a homeroom plan is in operation, the process is of sufficient importance to warrant spending several homeroom periods in its accomplishment. We favor a plan that permits students in the eighth grade to project a program for the next four years. Guidelines for this can easily be established. The first of these are the state department of education requirements for graduation. Normally these include specifications for units in English, social studies, mathematics, science, and physical education. These, then, become the skeleton of each student's program. Variations are available as recommended course patterns for college preparatory, commercial, vocational, and general emphases. This type of information clearly can be established as part of the curriculum guide or as a separate course of study bulletin. In written form, it affords a roadmap for choice.

Counseling data often vary from school to school. If testing information has been kept and analyzed, normative guides may be available that help to determine who should consider courses in, for instance, advanced mathematics. If a count has been kept of the colleges and universities attended by graduates of the school, entrance requirements can be abstracted and used as guidance information. This list, of course, can be elaborately extended.

Parents, too, should be brought into the guidance process. In many schools, a night is set aside for a counseling session with students and their parents. At any rate, pertinent information should be available to them, and they should sign their approval of the courses selected.

A form can be designed on which the student can write each course he selects for the upcoming year. These individual cards are very useful for making up specific classes. In addition, the form can have a place for all courses to be written in. Sometimes this is set up in triplicate, and a copy is then available for the student, the homeroom teacher, and the office.

THE MASTER SCHEDULE. As a step in making the master schedule, the administrator should have a summary sheet for each homeroom, with all available courses printed on it. Tally marks can then be made by the teacher, or quite likely by responsible students, that show at a glance total

registration by room in each of the various subjects. This information can be assembled on one master chart. From his knowledge of capacity, and following policy agreements concerning class size, the principal can determine how many sections of each subject will be needed.

At this point, organizational skill and planning are very important, because miscalculations can easily result unless these are exercised. Correction factors have to be produced, based on rates of failure, dropouts, and in-migration. Keeping these figures year by year and subject by subject, particularly in those areas required for graduation, will provide a percentage that can be used in determining the likely required number of sections. Whether or not the school has a summer program will also affect the planning picture. If such a scheme for making these calculations has not been established, it is recommended that it be begun by the administrator. In the meantime, he can get an indication from the teachers as to which students might fail which subjects. These schedule cards then can be coded for special attention and revised once this information becomes certain.

From the master tally sheet and calculations concerning class size, the number of class sections is easily determined. At this point, it is necessary to make provision for any special classes. It may be for instance, that 25 seniors need to be scheduled into English during the last period of the day, where they will work on the school newspaper. Classes that must come at a specified time and contain certain students should be blocked first into the master schedule. The schedule cards of those students should be coded and pulled for special handling. Those classes that have other special characteristics, such as double-period requirements, as a laboratory course might have, should also be put into the master schedule at this time.

USE OF A CONFLICT CHART. Developing nonconflicting blocks is the next step. In a four-year high school, these would be established for each of the classes. Essentially, the plan sets up classes in such a way that incompatible choices of subjects are reduced to a minimum. Cards with the columns representing periods in the school day and the rows classes available to each of the four classes can be used. Reference to the tally sheet will show how many sections of a particular subject can be offered and where the optimum periods are in which the conflicts disappear or are held to a minimum. Several authors have written helpfully about the mechanics in-

volved in the step, and the reader with a particular interest in how conflict sheets are developed is directed to those sources.³

After subjects have been put into their most appropriate periods, the next steps follow quite rapidly and systematically. Sections can be assigned to rooms and the students comprising each section can be determined. If the individual course cards have been used, they then become available to the teachers as their records of those who comprise each section.

As events occur that affect the process to this point, careful records should be kept so that the schedule can be as accurate as possible by the first day of school. Such records would include year-end failures, dropouts, in-and-out migration during the summer, and those who wish to change their schedules for some valid and acceptable reason.

During the summer months, secretarial help can be applied to the job of preparing individual schedules for each student and member of the staff. The office file cards can be alphabetized and filed. Packets can be assembled for homeroom teachers, who can distribute the new schedules to students on the first day of school. With the plan organized to this degree, the new school year can be started with a minimum of lost time. This is excellent for the morale of both teachers and students.

CONCLUSION

The skilled organizer is he who has the disposition to see the essential details involved in any job and the knack of using his own ability and the abilities of others to work through those details. It also is he who can see the most efficient way to accomplish a job. Often he recognizes that this requires the coordinated skills and effort of others. Many administrators fail to accomplish important jobs on time because of the misguided notion that they personally must be involved in each step. With the complexity of today's secondary schools this degree of detailed personal involvement on the part of the principal is a one-way ticket to frustration. His hope lies in thoughtful planning, organizational skill, and coordinated effort.

³ For example, see Will French, Dan Hull, and B. L. Dodds, *American High School Administration Policy and Practices* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1957), pp. 279-289; and D. H. Eikenberry, *Building the High School Schedule of Recitations* (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, Department of Education, 1954), pp. 7-8.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Take one of the task areas discussed in this chapter and isolate the principles that it illustrates. In terms of your personal experience, what additions or modifications would you suggest?
2. The task areas in this chapter have been discussed primarily from an administrative point of view. Analyze the areas from the standpoint of a teacher, a student, or a member of the community. Are any divergences apparent?
3. Select an activity in any of the task areas. Consider the organizational problems involved, and indicate what persons should take what actions to accomplish the anticipated jobs.
4. On the basis of your experience, what problem areas in education are most difficult to resolve? Why do they seem to defy solution? Would any of them be more manageable if better organization skills were developed and applied?

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part two

THE TASKS

PART TWO EMPHASIZES the basic task areas in which the secondary school administrator works. Chapter 5 discusses instructional leadership, the central responsibility of the administrator. Chapter 6 analyzes the staff personnel area. Chapter 7 presents pupil personnel administration, and Chapter 8 focuses on the financial and business management aspects of secondary school administration. The administrator's role in school-community relations is discussed in Chapter 9. The section is concluded with Chapter 10, which analyzes the unique tasks of the junior high school and the particular challenge of this field of secondary school administration.

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

EDUCATION IS THE PROCESS OF ACQUIRING THE KNOWLEDGES, skills, appreciations, and standards of a culture, and of learning to contribute to that culture. It is the means of continuing the heritage of a society and of providing opportunities for the present generation to make its contribution. Good education is that which does most to enable students to develop their abilities and serve their society. Therefore, education must be geared both to the needs of each individual and to the needs of a relentlessly changing society. To accomplish this, it must be both dynamic and diverse. It must be sensitive to the past, present, and future, and educational leaders must strive for an efficacious balance between time-tested educational precepts, on the one hand, and the never-ending adaptations, innovations, and improvements that accompany progress, on the other.

EMPHASIS ON THE INDIVIDUAL

Respect for the individual is a central theme in our culture. From this value spring two fundamental characteristics of American education—*universality and diversity*. Universality has been interpreted in this country as classroom education extending through the secondary school for all in-

dividuals, wherever practical. Our commitment to a high school education for all places a heavy responsibility upon the quality and character of instructional leadership.

Education, to be truly universal, must be diversified. This diversity stems both from the varying needs of individuals and the multiple needs of society. As communities differ, so must the educational facilities serving them differ, while still maintaining certain essential commonalities. The secondary school must serve all—urban, rural, suburban, poor, rich, talented, slow, adept, clumsy, frail, strong. All have definite educational needs and potentials for which the school must provide.

In the previous chapters we have explored some of the major concerns of the secondary school administrator. There is constant reference to the end product of operating the school—instruction. Invariably, when school principals are asked to cite what they believe to be their most important function, the answers indicate high priority for instructional leadership. Hence, this chapter is devoted to the problems, concerns, goals, techniques, and principles relating to the functions of the principal in the process of improving instruction.

PRIMACY OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Instructional leadership is only one—albeit a very important one—task area in which the high school principal must demonstrate competence. Both the school and the community have positive expectations regarding the role to be played by the leader. The office of the principal carries with it a certain prestige and status in the school community. The role of principal also has many commitments to action. There are discipline policies, athletics, cocurriculum activities of many kinds, conferences, role of substitute teachers, scheduling, office business routines, and a host of other duties and responsibilities within the school for which the principal is expected to provide leadership.

There are also demands upon the principal's time and energy from the community. He is expected to be a community leader and to participate in and give leadership to worthwhile community efforts. Service clubs, veterans groups, youth agencies, churches, and other civic and social organizations welcome the participation and leadership services of the "head man at the high school." The truth is that many principals are so bogged down with demands from within and without the school that little time remains for the important task of instructional leadership.

It is unrealistic to say that the many calls upon the principal's time and energy are "unimportant," "unnecessary," or "unproductive." He has many task areas of real importance. Importance is, however, a matter of degree. Where should the principal invest his time and energy? When he is overloaded with demands on his services, what systems of priorities shall he use? How important is instructional leadership compared with his other duties? These are questions of deep concern to many principals, and ready solutions are not easily obtained. It can be unhesitatingly conjectured, however, that the role of instructional leadership is one that cannot be slighted nor treated lightly.

Criticisms of Instruction

A clue to the importance of instruction in the secondary schools may be gleaned from the quality of criticism leveled at education in general. Honest, constructive criticism serves as a basis for progress and improvement. Further, when critics are silenced, a vital feature of democracy ceases. Nevertheless, educators must be selective in addressing their energies to criticism that appears to be honest and responsibly interested in what may be best for youth and our country.

It is interesting to note that much of this criticism is focused on instruction—what is taught, how it is taught, and to whom it is taught. Our patent need to improve instruction is a product of the times. Every age makes new demands on education, and the future holds infinitely more demands for good instruction in a world of ever increasing complexities. Education, by its very nature, makes continued improvement essential. Such educational goals as trained, amused, exercised, accommodated, or adjusted children, worthy and important as these may be, will not suffice unless the intellectual powers of youth are correspondingly developed. Sheer competition for survival, now, as in the past, leaves us no other choice. *Education for life has taken on a new and significant meaning. It will come about only through improvement of instruction through competent leadership and teaching.*

Point to a community that prizes intellectual achievement highly and you will find a heavy emphasis on such achievement reflected in the instructional program of its schools. Schools are to a great extent a mirror of the hopes, aspirations, and beliefs of the people who support them. In other words, the quality of education is directly related to the value system of the citizens in the community. *Some communities want good education, and they get it. Many studies have pointed to the direct relation of*

school support to quality of the educational program.¹ Consequently, it would seem appropriate for the principal to give careful thought and consideration to the climate of opinion, as related to quality of education, in the community. Perhaps, as an educational leader, he has a responsibility for upgrading the climate of opinion toward education in his area.

The challenge is to apply much more widely and with increased vigor the know-how demonstrated by our better schools. Our better schools are the least complacent about the quality of instruction. Staff members constantly seek new and better ways of doing their work, for such schools are most alert to new needs and conditions and are most likely to succeed in tailoring the instructional program to the varied needs of youth. Principals in our better schools are invariably strong in instructional leadership.

The principal knows that his most important task is that of improving instruction. This is not to say that all present instruction is not up to par, but that the principal, as other professionals, is presumed to be dynamic and interested in continually increasing his store of knowledge and improving and refining his techniques. Instruction is placed first in many ways. Nearly every action the principal takes has some bearing on instruction, and some of the tasks that appear as trivia often have direct bearing on some aspect of the instructional program. The plea here is that the focus on good teaching and learning be remembered in the myriad of administrative duties and responsibilities. Occasionally, every administrator must back off from his job to look at himself and his job objectively. It is in these moments of reflection that he may see the relatedness of his work to the central purposes of operating the school.

Demands for Quality in Education

"Quality" is an overused word, but judging from its use in manufacturing, advertising, education, and elsewhere, it appears to communicate a concept of worth. Industry speaks of "quality control" wherein checks are made to determine if desirable standards are being maintained in manufacturing processes. What is meant by quality in education? Is there a simple test of quality in education? Many feel that there is no single criterion by which the quality of an educational program may be measured.

¹ Studies by Dr. Paul Mort and others have shown a relationship among quality of schools and the factors of esteem and support for education in communities. See Paul R. Mort, Walter C. Reusser, and John W. Polley, *Public School Finance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), pp. 77-86.

What is seen as top quality for one student in a given situation may be viewed quite differently when applied to another student. Yet both programs may be excellent for those involved.

Excellence, then, may be the key to quality—excellence as against superficiality, tawdriness, and compromise, regardless of the particulars involved in any situation. This means not settling for the second best, but insisting everywhere on high-grade performance and the best in the way of curriculum, teaching, guidance, and educational opportunities. A statement from the Educational Policies Commission on the matter of quality in education says, in effect, that "a high-quality school program is characterized by a curriculum which makes possible, and teaching and guidance which make real, the promise of educational opportunity for each pupil."² A fundamental commitment of education in a free society is to assist individuals in the pursuit of excellence.

In education, as in other commodities, there are few short cuts to quality. The "get-by" attitude on the part of students cannot be tolerated in a program geared to excellence. Only that which challenges the best in students at all levels of ability is worthy of inclusion in an educational program that seeks to maintain high standards. Excellence begets excellence. Any compromise is a sure road to mediocrity.

Competing Demands

What shall be taught? To whom? When? How? This is the problem faced by the instructional leader. Let us look for a moment at the competitive aspects of what shall be included in the curriculum offerings. How do subjects find their way into the curriculum? What is the rationale behind offering driver training, first aid, modern dance, and fly-casting, or teaching French, history, and solid geometry? The conventional high school offers three general categories of subject matter: regular academic subjects, special subjects, and electives. The academic subjects are more or less constant and comprise the main diet of classroom experiences for students. Special subjects are course offerings to meet particular needs of students. Electives may be either academic or special subjects and are made available to students to round out their programs and to complete the necessary units for graduation.

Competition for inclusion in the curriculum experiences of youth

² Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, *An Essay on Quality in Public Education* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1959), p. 7.

is not restricted to the multiplicity of subject offerings. It is also a function of time—the periods in the school day, the days in the week, and the weeks in the school year. One of the major problems in the modern high school is obtaining time to do all that is expected and desirable. The time factor has given rise to possibilities of extending the school time schedule. Many schools have extended activities to include a portion of Saturday. Nine-and-a-half- and ten-month school terms are becoming more common. The summer term for special and remedial purposes is being used by a number of school systems. A few systems have experimented with the four-quarter system, but so far the year-round school has not convincingly demonstrated its worth.

There is good evidence that the high school of the future will take a sharp look at the time factor for instruction. Intelligent decisions will have to be made with regard to what shall be included and what shall be excluded in the secondary school program. It is entirely possible that some of the experiences now being offered in high school could be offered earlier, particularly for the more talented students.³ In addition, better and more efficient methods of teaching must be explored along with improved utilization of instructional materials and media.

Midcentury Assessment of Instruction

Assessment of the secondary school instructional program at midcentury appears to indicate the following:

1. Ever-increasing demands are being made upon the high school instructional program.
2. Mass education has influenced the instructional program markedly to meet the needs of the average.
3. Provisions for the talented and the slow learners need careful re-examination.
4. Better teaching by more qualified master teachers is needed.
5. Educational guidance needs improvement.
6. Careful re-examination of the curriculum is necessary.
7. Enrollments in high schools are establishing new records and will continue to do so.
8. Many high schools are too small to meet current and future expectancies for materials, equipment, and programs.

³ Languages, science courses, and other high school experiences are being offered in seventh and eighth grades.

9. The values of a high school education in our culture need 're-appraisal.
10. The over-all investment of time and money in secondary education must be re-evaluated.

These are but a few highlights of the projects and problems, all of which have a direct bearing on the quality of instruction, facing the instructional leader. Along with these, the leader is challenged to provide intelligent direction to a high school program in a culture dedicated to equality of opportunity in education, diversity of curriculum offerings, and quality instruction.

COMMONALITIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

The most common element among high schools is teen-age youth—youth in a unique community, the main function of which is to provide educational experiences. Evolving in much the same way as other social organisms, the high school has adjusted itself to furnishing educationally related experiences as demanded by a critical and vigilant society. Recreational activities, club activities, athletics, and similar program features have become as commonly identified with high school as English, science, and mathematics. In fact, educators and others have often expressed concern lest the nonacademic features of high schools transcend in importance the basic common purposes. Indeed, it may be said that one of the commonalities among high schools is the studied effort to strike a proper balance of program features.

It cannot be denied that society has wished upon the high schools a certain degree of custodial function unique to the American culture and quite foreign to original intents and purposes. In the not too distant past the high school was said to be "the poor man's college." In many respects the high schools have imitated the colleges and universities, even to having social fraternities and sororities. Today, the high school is still the terminal formal educational experience for a high percentage of youth.

Accreditation

Accrediting agencies and state departments of public instruction enforce certain commonalities among secondary schools. Sixteen units, courses pursued for one year (four each year for four years) is probably the most common requirement for graduation. Table 3 indicates that English and the social sciences run strongest as required subjects, with mathematics

and science trailing. The allowed number of electives ranges from four to sixteen. A typical state requirement for graduation from high school includes three years of English, two years of social science, including United States history, one year of mathematics, one year of science, and electives to complete the typical Carnegie Unit of sixteen credits. It should be noted that these are minimal requirements and that most students in secondary schools exceed these minimums in specific subject areas.

Table 3. *Composite of subjects required by state department of education for graduation.*

| State | Total | Subjects | | | | | Elective |
|---------------|-------|----------|----------------|-------------|---------------|----------|----------|
| | | English | Social Science | Mathematics | Other Science | Required | |
| Alabama | 16 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 6 |
| Arizona | 15 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | | 8 |
| Arkansas | 16 | 4 | 1 | | | | 11 |
| California | 19 | | 1½ | | | 4 | 13½ |
| Colorado | | | | | | | 16 |
| Connecticut | | | 1 | | | | |
| Delaware | 16 | 4 | 2 | | | | 10 |
| Florida | 20 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 10 |
| Georgia | 16 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Idaho | 17 | 3 | 1½ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 9½ |
| Illinois | 16 | 3 | 1 | | | | 12 |
| Indiana | 16 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Iowa | 16 | | 1½ | | | | 14½ |
| Kansas | 16 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Kentucky | 16 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 7 |
| Louisiana | 17 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Maine | 16 | 4 | 1 | | | | 11 |
| Maryland | 16 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 2 | | 6 |
| Massachusetts | 15 | | 1 | | | | 14 |
| Michigan | | | ½ | | | | |
| Minnesota | | | | | | | |
| (10, 11, 12) | 12 | 3 | 2 | | | 3 | 4 |
| Mississippi | 16 | 3 | 1 | | | | 12 |
| Missouri | 17 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 6 |
| Montana | 16 | 4 | 1½ | | | | 10½ |
| Nebraska | 16 | | | | | | 16 |
| Nevada | 16 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 |

Many things can be said about the American high school with a large degree of certainty: (1) There is no such thing as a typical American high school. (2) Most high schools are too small to provide an adequate program economically and efficiently. (3) High schools are serving an increasingly higher percentage of high school age youth; that is, more youth of high school age everywhere are going to secondary schools. (4) The high school program has been predominantly college preparatory. (5) An increasing proportion of high school graduates are going to college. (6) Standards are generally weighted in favor of the average student. (7) Effective guidance and individualization of instruction are among the goals commonly listed by educators and patrons as problems seriously in need of attention.

GOALS OF EDUCATION IN OUR SOCIETY

The process of education is a continuing one. From conception to death the human organism participates in experiences that modify later behavior. This is learning. The moment a spark of life is generated needs arise that must be satisfied if the organism is to live. Learning experiences that modify subsequent behavior multiply in frequency and complexity until that spark of life is extinguished by death, and the needs of life are terminated. During the first few years, the education of a child is centered mainly around the informal life of the home. In later childhood and adolescence, society provides formalized experiences through a sequential program of schooling. Adults have many and varied opportunities for learning—formal and informal, organized and unorganized, structured and unstructured.

Inter-relatedness

We are concerned here with secondary education, one segment of the continuum, with the full realization that all education is inter-related. For convenience and emphasis, we have come to designate various periods of education as preschool, kindergarten, primary school, elementary school, junior high school, high school, and college or higher education. All are important. Occasionally these stages are referred to as "steps" in the educational process. When considered from the point of view of inter-relatedness, it might be better to consider the periods as part of a ramp. This

concept provides us with an opportunity to consider the comprehensive program of education for youth in local schools from start to finish.

Complex societies alone require formal and organized school experiences. Primitive societies get along quite well with informal, incidental learnings passed on by the parents and sages in the group. In these societies the goals of education are minimal. Incidental and accidental learning suffice. Eventually the necessary skills for survival are learned and the young take on their responsibilities of adulthood. In more advanced societies, elders assume the teacher function to assure the passing-on of the heritage in a quasi-formal manner. With each level of complexity, the increased body of knowledge to be learned makes formalization of the learning experiences more necessary.

Interestingly enough, the less complex societies do not envision education for the masses. Their technology demands very few specialists requiring extensive training, and only a chosen few are trained for ceremonial and leadership roles. This selective process has some vestiges in modern societies, where the intellectual elite are given advanced training and the rest minimum educational advantages.

Evolution

In our consideration of secondary education as an organized part of the educational experience, we are not unmindful of the impact of home, church, various social agencies, play, work, and other contributors to the general educative process and the changes it brings. Change is inevitable—it is society's only constant. The role of organized education on the high school level is different today from what it was a quarter of a century ago, and it will be different a quarter of a century hence.

Much of the confusion about curriculum stems from controversies rooted in change. There are always those who feel that the program is too antiquated and static or too forward-looking and radical; too rigid or too flexible, too academic or not academic enough, or too practical or not practical enough. The optimum program would be so arranged as to be in complete synchronization with changing society, the individual needs of each student, and the informal community influences that effect the total education of youth. The achievement of such a program is most unlikely.

Changes in Behavior

Every society tends to measure the end product of its educational system by the behavioral changes affected. Likewise, according to Allport, "main-

taining, actualizing, and enhancing of the capacities of the individual organism" is the basic motive of life in the individual.⁴ Thus, behavioral changes resulting from formal educative experiences as well as those derived from the informal experiences of life and maturation substantiate the fact that the ascribed goal has both social and individual pertinence. It has been said that human nature seeks to become and is not satisfied merely to be. We live in a dynamic social situation, calling for continued effort to utilize and develop the capacities we possess that we may better satisfy this need to become.

What should the students be able and willing to do, in an observable way, as a result of this high school education? How may we expect the high school graduate to think and feel and act? Valid and authentic answers to these questions are constantly being sought by leaders of instruction, curriculum planners, test-makers, teachers, and interested citizens. Again, the effectiveness of the high school education is measured in terms of behavioral changes. It is not surprising, then, that every effort to postulate statements of purpose or objectives for secondary education is based on behavioral anticipations.

Purposes and Objectives

The year 1918 marked two important contributions to the literature on purposes and objectives of secondary education. Alexander Inglis wrote *Principals of Secondary Education*, in which the secondary school was recognized as a part of our "common schools" to be available and experienced by all youth;⁵ and *The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* was published.⁶ Previous commissions and committees dealing with the objectives and purposes of secondary education had centered mainly on the degree of mastery of certain subject matter to be required of students. Proficiency in subject matter is important to the high school instructional leader, but the publications mentioned above marked the advent of a new approach, which measured results by the effect upon behavior.

Numerous statements and reports, such as *The Imperative Needs*

⁴ Gordon W. Allport, *Becoming: Basic Considerations for a Psychology of Personality* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955), pp. 16-17.

⁵ Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918.

⁶ Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, Bureau of Education, *The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1918).

of Youth,⁷ *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*,⁸ *The Purpose of Education in American Democracy*,⁹ *Education for All American Children*,¹⁰ *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy*,¹¹ and other efforts to express education ideology appeared. These contributions were not directed solely toward secondary schools but had wide implications for all levels of education. They attempted to put into words the evolving concepts of purposes and objectives of American education.

More recently, the Russell Sage Foundation, under the leadership of Kearney and French has published two significant reports on the objectives of elementary and secondary education.¹² The report of the objectives of secondary education took a sharp look at the behavioral goals of general education in the high school. The movement in education toward a program that attempts to assist youth to meet life's needs has come to be known as the "general education" movement. In 1893, the Committee of Ten first used the term "general education" and defined it as the four major subjects: language, science, history, and mathematics. Much has been written about general education, but for our purposes general education refers to those nonspecialized, nonvocational aspects of education that should be the common possession, the common denominator, so to speak, of educated persons in a free society.

General education has two purposes. One is concerned with the development of a person as an individual; the other is concerned with the development of a person as a member of society. It is easily seen that knowledge alone is not the complete answer to self-realization and effective citizenship. Performance is the ultimate criterion by which general

⁷ Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, *"Imperative Needs of Youth," Education For All American Youth* (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1944).

⁸ Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1937).

⁹ Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, *The Purpose of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1938).

¹⁰ Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, *Education for All American Children* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1948).

¹¹ Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1941).

¹² Nolan C. Kearney, *Elementary School Objectives* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1953); and Will French, *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1957).

approximately 85 per cent of the boys and girls age fifteen are in school.¹¹ The period from 1910 to 1920 saw vigorous campaigning against child labor and the subsequent introduction of regulatory legislation. One effective argument employed in this movement was the negative effect of early employment on opportunities for education and values obtained therefrom. Hence, as a result of laws affecting employment, as well as the attitude of management and labor, it is difficult for youth even at the age of seventeen to obtain many kinds of jobs.

The problem, as seen by many, is that our highly materialistic, push-button, entertainment-seeking, complacent culture is losing sight of basic values in education and becoming satisfied with lip service to the ideal. When a society pays many workers more than its teachers and spends several times as much on the luxuries of comfortable living than on education, the sincerity with which values of education are held can be questioned. A socioeconomic climate in which competent people are lured away from teaching allows but one conclusion to be drawn concerning its effect on the quality of instructional staffs in our schools: downgrading will occur.

Yet the fact that these factors are deplored in many quarters and that whole communities are taking steps to remedy the situation gives credence to the idea that basically the worth of education maintains a relatively high priority in our value system. Organizations such as the National Citizens' Council for Better Schools, The National Education Association and its divisions, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers have done yeoman service to education through their efforts to alert the public to the value of education and the need to improve it. The evidence is convincing. Homes and communities everywhere are the ultimate determiners of the quality of education.

Contrast Between American and Foreign Education

Historically, and with greater pertinence recently, European models of secondary education have been contrasted and compared with those on this side of the Atlantic. The instructional leader is discomforted when the purported excellence of continental education is played up as something to be emulated in this country. It is both interesting and amusing that continental education is faced with the problem of emulating aspects of purported excellence in American education. Many first-hand observers,

¹¹ James B. Conant, *The American High School Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959), p. 7.

studying both systems, feel that, although elements of both systems could be shared for mutual profit, accurate comparison between them is unrealistic. The organization for education is entirely different in America from that on the continent. Secondary schools in Europe perform secondary school and general college functions, since the university system does not fully encompass general education or the liberal arts. Finally, with rare exception, the continental preuniversity school consists of eight or nine years of rigorous training in languages, mathematics, science, history, and literature administered to the select fifteen to twenty per cent of the youth, chosen at approximately age ten to twelve. It would be much as if we were to adopt a system of selecting the top fifteen per cent of fourth graders to go on to secondary school.

Woodring, in his *Fourth of a Nation*, makes in essence a compromise suggestion that the specially gifted fourth of the youth receive intensive training, similar to the European pattern, with modifications for the less talented groups.¹⁵ Conant and others have recommended the comprehensive high school with "multiple track" experiences based upon abilities and interests.¹⁶

Educators here and in foreign countries feel that substantial intellectual resources in Europe might be salvaged through the adoption of some of our practices, particularly with regard to extending the time in school before making final decisions regarding specialization.

Secondary Education for the Masses

Not the least among the problems of improving instruction is that of providing of quality education effectively for the wide range of students enrolled in our secondary schools. This is not a dream or an impracticability. Many communities do quite well toward accomplishing the ideal; in other communities, the implications of universal secondary education have not been fully realized by the profession or the general public. Actually, too many communities provide selective educational programs and provide for universal secondary education with only the superficial motions of espousing an educational program with diversity and flexibility.

Profound differences among individuals have been scientifically charted, and realistic educational programs must reflect variations to meet individual needs. No uniform program or single technique will suffice.

¹⁵ Paul Woodring, *A Fourth of a Nation* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957).

¹⁶ Conant, *op. cit.*, p. 96.

Effective provisions for individual differences require multiple program implementations and a variety of techniques carefully selected and planned to be commensurate with the needs of youth to be served. In practice, this means that in a heterogeneous student body, standards of achievement, based upon the individual student's capabilities, must be established and recognized. Reports of the student's achievement should communicate a description of the particular work and success of the individual in relation to established standards in a differentiated program. Under this policy a standard high school diploma would be inappropriate, since it could not attest to the satisfactory completion of a uniform experience. In fact, granting identical diplomas to high school graduates is even now viewed by some employers and colleges as merely certification of attendance. A record of the individual's achievement is necessary in appraisal and selective processes. The granting of the differentiated diploma and the course description diploma by many schools approaches much more nearly the realities of recognizing program completions truly geared to individual needs and achievement.

Problems of instruction improvement, stemming from educating all youth, may be summarized as follows:

1. Reaffirming the ideal that all youth should be educated to the fullest potential of their abilities, needs, and capacities, by the general public, the instructional staffs, and the students.
2. Translating this ideal into practical program offerings and practices in the high school.
3. Establishing minimum standards of acceptable achievement in the differentiated programs in the school.
4. Providing quality instruction in the differentiated programs.
5. Fusing content mindedness and student-centered mindedness on the part of staff and the general public to support and implement a program truly dedicated to meeting the individual differences in a heterogeneous grouping.
6. Providing means and techniques for effectively determining individual differences, capacities, and interests.
7. Establishing means for guidance and appraisal appropriate to a differentiated program.

Major Functions of Secondary Education

Any concern about improvement of instruction must eventually take into account the major functions of education. Education has a number of im-

portant and valuable functions, but these are seldom clearly defined either in terms of educational practices or of what lay people think the high school accomplishes. In the decade between 1930 and 1940, the National Association of Secondary School Principals published *committee reports* on issues and functions of secondary education. In 1955, the White House Conference on Education addressed itself to this task. In 1957, the National Conference on Secondary Education, held at The University of Chicago, and a subsequent conference at Teachers College, Columbia University, again explored the functions of the high school. A review of the findings reveals many commonalities. French and his associates have synthesized the findings of these statements into four general functions: the integrating function, the development function, the exploratory and guidance function, and the differentiating function.¹⁷

THE INTEGRATING FUNCTION. The function of integration assumes that education should contribute to the cultural integration of students. This is predicated upon the full development of individuality in the person while relating him to the common understandings, attitudes, beliefs, knowledges, skills, and purposes necessary for effective actions in society. No man lives entirely unto himself, and this fact becomes more and more meaningful in an increasingly complex and interdependent society.

Special problems arise in this area, due to the fact that the school is only one of several social agencies and institutions having impact on the social integration of the individual. Under a philosophy of selective and uniform education for all, the school's contribution to social integration is made much simpler than under a philosophy of universal education with differentiated programs. It appears clear that the comprehensive high school has a greater multiplicity of problems with regard to the social integration function and, at the same time, the greatest opportunity to execute the desirable function once the problems are seen and met.

THE DEVELOPMENTAL FUNCTION. The developmental function envelops the full growth and attainment of all apparent and latent potentials in the individual. This function is subject to controversy. Some hold that the school's responsibility should be largely limited to academic considerations. At the same time, it must be conceded that every individual has an existence apart from the group life and the vocational pursuits for which

¹⁷ Will French, J. Dan Hull, and B. L. Dodds, *American High School Administration—Policy and Practice* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1957), pp. 71–78.

the school has a responsibility. Therefore, a program of differentiated activities designed to ensure maximal maturation of individuality must be provided to enlarge and develop the student's interests and talents. The more highly organized and complex society becomes, the greater the need for the development and the maintaining of individuality.

Youth organizations, the home, the church, and other social institutions, all provide vital assistance in the developmental function. This suggests the need for close cooperation between the school and other community agencies in this and other functions of education. Communities such as Shorewood, Wisconsin, have found a Community Parent and School Council an effective organizational pattern for cooperative efforts in the developmental function. The mere fact that other community agencies perform this function to some extent does not justify the school's abdication. The school, as a representative and dynamic community agency, should assume leadership in a cooperative effort to make the best possible use of all potential sources for the development of youth.

THE GUIDANCE FUNCTION. This function is taking on a new and more significant meaning in the modern high school. It is during the high school years that students face problems of determining and crystallizing their own particular interests and purposes. The seriousness with which secondary education is attempting to provide diversified programs to meet the varying needs of youth compels us to take a careful look at the guidance function, for the effectiveness of a differentiated program rests squarely on the foundation of intelligent and efficient guidance procedures.

Guidance has long been one of the chief concerns of the high school principal. It has long been an integral part of his job. Disciplining, programing, advising, counseling, all were among the major responsibilities of the principal. This concept was entirely in keeping with the earlier concepts of guidance, which was an admixture of teaching and authority administered to students to assist them in making the proper choices and adjustment to life situations.

With the advent of specialized training in guidance procedures and techniques, and with the evolvement of the concept of the guidance function, staff members began to share these responsibilities. Specialists were hired to assist staff members in their guidance activities. Counseling began to be synonymous with guidance, and in some situations replaced the term in keeping with the thought that students should be provided

with wide experiences and information with which they should be encouraged to arrive at proper decisions on their own.

In the modern developmental concept of the guidance function we see a synthesis of counseling (nondirective as contrasted with the more authoritarian directive approach) coupled with curriculum experiences designed to provide the student with a proper basis for making efficacious, critical decisions concerning life problems, courses, vocational pursuits, and other personal adjustment problems on his own.¹⁸ Guidance, in this concept, becomes one of the functions of the high school as a social institution. The whole secondary school experience is seen in terms of its guidance values and of its impact upon individual students and the student body collectively.

As we see it, the major problem of the principal, as he endeavors to improve instruction and the quality of education through a differentiated program, is to (1) establish a proper climate among the community, staff, and students for the implementation of the guidance function; (2) provide exploratory, self-assessment, informational, and other experiences commensurate with the needs of students in making choices and decisions; (3) provide channels, resources, personnel, instructional materials, and opportunities for continued growth and development based upon decisions and choices arrived at by students; and (4) from time to time appraise the effectiveness and efficiency of the guidance function in his school.

THE DIFFERENTIATING FUNCTION. This function, closely related to the developmental function, embodies the tremendous task of providing the appropriate differentiated curriculum experiences required by a heterogeneous student body. In addition to providing a sound general education, differentiation encompasses program developments for those for whom the secondary school is terminal, those preparing for college, those preparing for vocational pursuits directly after finishing high school and those with no special plans for the future.

Some of the problems here are the following:

1. To provide for compatibility in the integrating and differentiating functions of a high school.
2. To provide for minimum general education for all.
3. To keep the program in balance so that it does not become all general or all special.

¹⁸ G. F. Farwell and H. J. Peters, *Guidance: A Developmental Approach* (Chicago: Rand MacNally & Company, 1958).

4. To determine the degree to which special programs should be structured or left open for election on the part of students.
5. To decide how to guide and program students into the differentiated curricula.
6. To determine how to finance and staff the differentiated program.
7. To determine cutting points, inclusions, and exclusions in providing for differentiation, particularly in the small high schools.

Differentiation, in this context, means running two or more shows in the same tent. The allusion to a circus tent is not entirely facetious; the three-ring circus is a fairly good example of differentiation for the entertainment interests of a heterogeneous group.

RELATED ISSUES AND CONCERNS

The problems of improving instruction are legion, and only problems that may have application in many situations are included here. For the most part, the principal will find it much easier to discover problems than to find their solution. It is in the latter aspect of the job that the men are separated from the boys, and that leadership shines through. The following are problems practicing principals will readily recognize and the neophyte very soon discover.

Staff Attitude

Staff attitude and inclination to want to do something about improving the instructional program can be a most vexing problem. Attitude and climate of opinion on a staff are not matters of accident. Good teachers with high morale and willingness to cope with problems of instruction are usually the product of quality leadership operating according to design to bring together the best people possible into a team relationship. Good teachers tend to gravitate to the better situations and to avoid the less desirable positions, where staff attitude is uninviting.

Abilities among teachers vary. The wise administrator will assess the strengths and weaknesses of his staff and move in the direction of making the best possible use of the talents available. Recognition, evaluation, encouragement, praise, undertaking, and growth are key concepts in building staff attitudes and morale. This should not be overlooked as one of the more common problems with relation to the program of improving instruction.

Schedule-Making

Scheduling is another problem of increasing dimension in the improvement in the quality of instruction and learning. Methods and techniques for scheduling are discussed in Chapter 4. It is our purpose here merely to highlight scheduling as it is related to differentiation in the high school program. In some schools, where transportation is a factor, it is almost a matter of adjusting the daily schedule to the bus trip in the morning and the return trip in midafternoon. With ever-increasing consolidations and longer transportation routes, this factor has become very significant. Many schools have experimented with longer class periods, but they have encountered difficulties in finding enough periods in the day to do what seemed necessary. Yet when the periods are cut short, teachers often complain that there is not enough time to do what is necessary. Schools operating a selective program, that is, strictly vocational or general education, have the least difficulty. The comprehensive high schools, operating a differentiated program to meet varied student interests and needs, are bound to have a greater problem with scheduling.

Instructional needs are not the only factors that impinge upon scheduling. Most high schools have substantial programs of cocurriculum activities—clubs, athletics, music, forensics, dramatics, and so forth. Either the academic program must be interrupted to provide for these activities, or they must be scheduled before or after school hours. However provided for, these experiences take time out of the day.

Another factor in many schools is overcrowded buildings, which result in double shifts. This is even more constraining in providing time for a differentiated program that permits wide choices in student participation.

Transiency

Mobility of students appears to be an increasingly difficult problem. Seasonal employment, industrial expansion, personnel development programs, and new opportunities for parental employment make it necessary for students to change residence from one high school district to another. Arrangements must be made for such students to continue the kind of training and the courses pursued in the previous high school. Evaluations of credits, substitutions, and adjustments often make it difficult for the student to maintain his original course plans and still be provided with

what may be considered best in the way of a quality experience on the secondary level.

Size Factors

School size and enrollment is another factor to be considered in providing for improvement of instruction. Many schools are faced with economic and personnel problems in meeting the wide range of needs. Can a class be operated for two or three students? What is the cutting point for a class to "make"? What is the relation of class size to the nature of subject matter taught?

Some schools have solved these problems rather ingeniously by combining two small groups in advanced mathematics and individualizing the instruction. Others have supervised and paid for correspondence courses. In still other instances, special classes have been scheduled outside of the regular class periods.

At the other end of the scale, where enrollments exceed the operating facilities, communities have resorted to double-shift programs. This arrangement is makeshift at best, but is sometimes the only solution until more building facilities can be provided. Mounting enrollments and costs have made optimum use of facilities and the avoidance, whenever possible, of duplication of facilities for the same program uses of utmost importance.

Other problems of improving instruction include ways of gaining community support, policy, the use of consultants, staff time for the study of instructional improvement, and many other details. All of them must be considered in any effort to build quality into the instructional program.

KEY ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

"Principalship" and "leadership" are synonymous in education. The principal is in a position to affect attitude, social climate, morale, progress, cooperation, and direction of effort in the secondary school. He is the key person, charged with the responsibilities of improving instruction. Despite the frustrations of administration and demands on his time, the effective principal realizes that the improvement of instruction is his most important responsibility. No one expects him to be an expert in all instructional areas, but he is expected to be an expert in coordinating, organizing, stimulating, activating, encouraging, arranging, planning, and evaluating tech-

Concept of the Job

Role expectancies have much to do with the principal's concept of his job. Many of the disappointments that come to principals, particularly to the neophyte, are directly traceable to unrealistic and deficient concepts of the position. *Teaching was so different! Some assume the responsibilities of principalship with inadequate preparation.* Others, because of personal and professional limitations for dealing with frustrations and responsibilities, might better have remained in the classroom as good teachers. Actually, every teacher is an administrator in his classroom and shares many of the concerns and responsibilities of the principal. It is the dimensions of the job that make the difference.

The principal comes to his tasks with a certain self-expectancy based on what he, himself, conceives to be his job, his duties, and his responsibilities. But this is only one aspect of the concept of the principalship. The community has a concept of what it thinks the principalship should be; teachers have their views; the superintendent, the board of education, and even the students have their concepts of the principalship. *It is readily seen, then, that the concept of the principalship, as it exists in reality, is a composite of several points of view and several sets of expectancies. Unless conflicts between the principal's concept of his job and those held by others are resolved and understood, the effectiveness of the principal as a leader is bound to suffer. Essentially his job is not so much knowing all the answers as it is knowing how to work with and through people to obtain answers and solutions to problems.*

¹⁰ Carroll L. Shartle, "Studies in Naval Leadership," *Groups, Leadership and Men* edited by Harold Guetzkow (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Research Foundation, 1952).

^w**Position of Influence**

The principal is in a unique position of influence in education. He stands, as no other person does, in a pivotal relationship between the people and the school. His office is a medium for two-way communication, reporting and interpreting school activities to the community, and assessing and implementing the community's educational objectives in his school.

Who is in a better position to help citizens, teachers, and others in the community to define their educational goals than the principal? Who is in a better position to help in the assessment of educational values? Who assumes the leadership for facilitating the teaching-learning process to develop greater effectiveness in teaching? Who builds the organizational structure that develops the leadership qualities of staff members at all levels, and promotes group solidarity and group productivity? One man—in a unique position of influence resident in the principalship of a secondary school.

Not unlike the 500-mile auto racing classic, where a "pacer" leads out to unleash the skills of highly selected participants in order to produce a spectacle in speed, the high school principal sets the pace for his staff and his community. He is a catalyst that initiates a process, sets it off and gets it going. He puts leadership into practice by creating the proper atmosphere for cooperative teamwork and production in order that fruitful interchange of ideas and sharing of knowledge may be established and maintained.

The effective principal perceives the right moment to initiate action, to lend encouragement, to inject new zest, to give recognition, to evaluate, and to culminate activities. Many leaders are good "starters." The true test of leadership comes in carrying through to the finish. It is what happens between the start and the finish of a project that establishes the value of the leader as a pace-setter. Starting an activity and carrying it through to a conclusion is a phenomenon of group dynamics that cannot be left to chance. The principal is responsible for this nurturing process.

Conditions and Processes

The principal is the key person in the cooperative problem-solving process. As such, he is concerned with conditions and processes—the conditions under which problems are to be solved and improvements made, and the processes necessary to achieve the intended goals. For example, the time at which a staff committee meeting is scheduled to work on a

problem is a condition that may make or break the effectiveness of the participation. Conditions for work that are undesirable and unwelcome are decided roadblocks to successful activity.

The leader is likewise concerned with process: the sharing, studying, evaluating, data-gathering, hypothesizing, testing, and concluding activities of the group. He can do much to initiate, encourage, stimulate, organize, and nurture a healthy group effort in the solution of a problem or, through his own conduct, he can discourage all productive effort. Conditions and processes go hand in hand, one dependent upon the other. The able leader not only recognizes this, but becomes adept at handling and manipulating these two factors so as to provide the best possible circumstances for productive group effort.

Successful instructional leaders are becoming more convinced that instructional improvement is a matter of change in people—change in their behavior and attitudes. According to Sharp, the improvements a community brings about in its instructional program are due largely to changes in the professional behavior of its school personnel,²⁰ and to make these changes effectively requires an understanding of the process.

Any conscious change in teaching or in the selection or use of instructional materials is initiated by a feeling of dissatisfaction with existing methods. When we are dissatisfied, we begin to explore, searching for improvements. We select possibilities that look promising, design a way of implementing them, and "try them on for size." The key concepts are appraisal, dissatisfaction, search, selection, design, trial, and evaluation. This is the intelligent process of change—the process, nurtured under favorable conditions, with the greatest possibility of consistent success.

Leadership Competencies

Let us again examine the role expectancy of the instructional leader before we look at specific competencies. In the cooperative approach to instructional improvement the responsibility of the leader is two-fold. First, he is a provider of the necessary resources for members of his staff. Second, he is a teacher of skills in the cooperative problem-solving process. This concept of role differs somewhat from those conventionally practiced, although it is hardly foreign to our better instructional leaders. The role of instructional leader envisioned here is not so much concerned with what

²⁰ George Sharp, *Curriculum Development as Re-education of the Teacher* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951).

he is, what he is like, or his status, but is concerned with what he does, how he behaves, and how he works with and through people.

By conventional standards, this description of an instructional leader's role may sound strange, largely because the popular concept of the successful leader is someone who can, single-handed, quickly assess situations—in a kind of a one-man show—and then get others to do what he thinks needs to be done. The sad fact is that most men now in positions of leadership in our schools run one-man shows because they have not been trained in the cooperative team approach to problem solving. Some attempt it by appointing committees and imagining this act alone to be the essence of cooperative group effort. Under these circumstances it is quite impossible for them to serve as resources to help staff members learn processes that they themselves have not sufficiently experienced.

What competencies, then, should a provider of resources and a trainer in the group process possess in addition to those required to meet the manifold expectations required of his office? Since leadership behavior is our point of reference, let us take for granted that the individual possesses all the personal traits and professional virtues generally accredited to a principal, and go directly to an examination of leading as a process.

A competency is a factor that contributes to or is an integral part of effective leader behavior. Research studies on effective leader behavior patterns are far fewer in number than those exploring leadership traits, yet evidence of a high positive relationship between good character traits and effective leader behavior is indisputable. Some of the personal character traits of the effective leader, as noted in Chapter 3, may be summarized in these words: capacity, achievement, responsibility, status, and empathy. The instructional leader works with people in many and varying situations, much the same as a coach works with members of a team. He works with individuals, pairs, groups, and the team as a whole. Although there can be no doubt about the positive values of good leadership traits as desirable assets to any leader of people, however, the mere possession of desirable traits in an individual is of itself no guarantee of associated behavioral competencies requisite to effective group leadership.

COMPETENCIES FOR PROVIDING RESOURCES. What are some of the specialized competencies for providing resources? Firstly, the principal must possess the ability to perceive and recognize various resources that will aid the process of improving instruction. Many resources in the school situation are ignored and wasted simply because no one recognizes them. Some

of these hidden resources are in the staff, in the community, and in professional groups. Teachers and community members often have valuable contributions and encouragement to offer. Nearby colleges and universities may have resources and resource persons available. Frequently other school systems are interested in similar problems and cooperate willingly in programs of instructional improvement. The perceptive leader will not allow these resources to go unnoticed and unused.

Resources of many kinds—material, personal, spiritual, time—all are needed in the process of instructional improvement. All need to be weighed and evaluated in terms of appropriateness, availability, pertinence, and plausibility. Funds, equipment, and supplies required for any effort to study and improve instruction must be anticipated. Teachers, consultants, resource persons, and community members are needed in any program of dealing with instructional problems. *Esprit de corps* is essential. Time must be arranged for meetings and deliberations. Clerical assistance must be provided for reporting results.

Secondly, the leader must possess an ability to procure resources. *This encompasses more than the ability to process requisitions. It involves planning, budgeting, organizing, scheduling, and justifying acquisition.*

Let us consider the following illustration of poorly executed procurement. The experimental engineering division of a large manufacturing company needed some specialized equipment for a very important project. A team of engineers appeared at a meeting of the board of directors, which, incidentally, was composed largely of business men with non-engineering backgrounds, to request the purchase of \$250,000 worth of special equipment. The request was couched in such technical language that only a few board members understood the request. The only action taken at that meeting was to table the request until the board could gain a better understanding of what was wanted.

Thirdly, the principal must have an ability to make effective use of resources. Regardless of the nature of the resource, ineffectual use of it is hardly excusable. Additional staff personnel brought on to assist in a program of improving instruction will be of little value if they are assigned chores easily handled by high school students. Likewise, equipment and materials that are allowed to remain in storage have little value.

Perceiving, procuring, and using wisely are the hallmarks of the leader's competence in providing resources. Naturally, the use of these skills varies with situations and circumstances, just as the resource requirements vary with the nature of the problem to be solved or the project to be

undertaken. Whatever the needs, the leader must see it as his responsibility to provide unfailingly the optimal resources commensurate with the task at hand.

COMPETENCIES FOR TRAINING IN THE GROUP PROCESS. The role of the principal in training for group and cooperative approaches to problem-solving is in many ways similar to that of the conductor of a symphony orchestra. A musical organization is the combination of many individuals, groups, talents, temperaments, and skills. Each section in the orchestra makes its distinct contribution, and when all are organized into a harmonious interpretive effort the results are pleasing. Let the same musicians gather to make random sounds on their instruments, however, and, regardless of their skills and talents, the result is noisy confusion.

How does one train people for group thinking, for teamwork, and for cooperative effort? How does one help people learn to work together? More especially, how does one help people to think together in a problem-solving situation? The answers to these questions form the substance of the leadership competencies necessary in training people to work productively as group members and to realize definite personal satisfactions and growth in the process. Working together should be in an atmosphere in which opportunities and encouragement for experimenting with new ideas exist; where there is recognition of, respect for, and utilization of participants' opinions and ideas in determining action that will effect them; and where experiences build confidence and skill in cooperative problem-solving.

FIVE CONTRIBUTIONS. Firstly, the instructional leader is expected to bring to the problem-solving situation a demonstrable competence in and understanding of the group process. No one can lead or assist others to better understandings of processes he, himself, does not thoroughly understand. The successful teacher of group dynamics is a student of group interaction. He knows how to involve people, how to arrange conditions and initiate processes that will bring out the best in each participant. He knows the relation of organization, communication, scheduling, timing, fact-gathering, deliberation, evaluation, and summarization to the cooperative problem-solving experiences.

Secondly, he will have skill in establishing rapport among the members of a group. He will be sure that teachers come to know and understand each other. This is fairly easy with a relatively small faculty where everyone is more or less acquainted, but where several school faculties are

involved and there is widespread representation on committees, getting acquainted and developing understandings becomes more important and involved. Sometimes a cup of coffee preceding a work session is just the thing needed to set the stage and establish a climate for subsequent group effort. A few minutes of socialization prior to the work session often do wonders.

Thirdly, the leader will know how to define the problem and relate it to the participants in the group. He will encourage participants, explore and redefine the problem and the subproblems.

Fourthly, he will recognize individual contributions—advice, ability, and ideas preferred by group members. He will encourage the group to share in this recognition and give credit where due. A word of praise is often worth a dozen admonishments, especially since group members need to feel secure before they will speak their minds about issues. To be summarily “ruled out” or “laughed at” for expressing an idea undermines the confidence necessary in the team approach to problem-solving.

A fifth competence of the leader in the group process is a demonstrated integrity of leadership. Every leader is called upon to accede to a great variety of demands, pressures, and urges from within and without. He has his own status to think about, yet he desires to be popular, to please. Other members of the group have aspirations and ambitions. In working with problems of instructional improvement there are often pressure groups with selfish motives, or well-meaning but uninformed parents. Hence, every person responsible for group activity must steer a course between initiating and directing, on the one hand, and showing consideration for himself and for others, on the other. The maintenance of a proper balance between the two forces may be called the integrity of leadership. One author has referred to it as a leader inner-directedness, a certain integrity for seeing that things move in a positive direction regardless of distractions and inhibiting factors.²¹

These five general competencies of the leader in group process are not only positive values for the instructional leader but also potentials to be cultivated and shared by emerging leaders within the group. Every participant should grow through sharing in the group activity and assuming, from time to time, the leadership role. Instructional improvement *does not take place in a vacuum; it occurs in the minds and attitudes of*

²¹ T. J. Jenson, *Some Important Considerations For Leadership* (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio Trade and Industrial Education Service, The Ohio State University, 1958), p. 8.

people—teachers, administrators, citizens, students, and all others connected in any way with the school program. As people grow in ability to pool energy, ideas, imaginations, experiments, evaluations, and inspirations in a cooperative effort to improve instruction, the possibility of satisfactory change is proportionately enhanced.

This more or less abstract discussion of the role of the instructional leaders is in no way intended as a dodge to the realities of the principal's job. Obviously, he has problems of curriculum, special services, cocurriculum activities, scheduling, staffing, extended school day, inservice education, educational camping, adult education, parent education, vocational education, public relations, and many other concerns. In solving problems of any kind, however, he works with people. He probably should involve people more than he does. Success—his own and that of his school—will ultimately be measured by the degree to which he has helped others to grow and cooperate in solving the many problems related to modern secondary education.

There are no pat answers to all problems of secondary education that have universal application in all situations and all communities. The small school has its peculiar problems, as does the large school, and a satisfactory solution in one situation might be quite out of order in another. Therefore, it is clear that good leadership, with wide involvement of people in the problem-solving process, is the most logical and potentially successful technique for obtaining solutions, while at the same time assuring growth of the participants in the process.

Good Instruction

Good instruction is very complicated. Basically, it is a matter of providing the right experiences. All experiences in the classroom, in the gymnasium, on the athletic field, and elsewhere in the school lead to learning. Learning occurs at home, on the street corners, and with "the gang." Although the principal's responsibility for instruction lies normally with arranging for the experiences in school, he cannot ignore the learning that occurs elsewhere.

There are many criticisms of the curriculum. Not enough students are enrolled in advanced science courses. Too many students are electing the "soft" courses. Graduates do not know enough mathematics. The pressure is on the principal to give an account of his stewardship. In the next instant some one approaches the principal with the request that a

new course be added to the curriculum. In such conditions, what is good instruction?

Curriculum (experiences and content of instruction) is not to be confused with instruction (teaching and providing learning experiences). Our concern here is with the latter, especially with the relation of the principal to the improvement of teaching and the instructional program.

Good instruction is characterized by: (a) providing the basic and general learning experiences commensurate with the cultural, vocational, civic, and moral requirements of the affected society; (b) ensuring that the abilities and talents of students, individually and in groups, are challenged in the process to a degree that will assure effectiveness and efficiency; (c) securing measurable growth, achievement, comprehension, and mastery of skills, consistent with the level of instruction; (d) achieving the desired goals through leading and guiding students in the spirit of enthusiastic cooperation shared by students, parents, school staff members, and citizens.

Again, each principal and his staff define good instruction for themselves, in terms of their own peculiar situation. Two fundamental concepts seem to us to be very important in the principal's approach to what constitutes good instruction: (a) the instruction must meet the varied needs of youth in the community, and (b) there must be demonstrated growth on the part of the students.

THE CASE OF MR. JONES

Thus far we have discussed the problems, theory, philosophy, and other related aspects of instructional leadership in secondary education. Now let us look at a theoretical situation in which a principal attempts to give leadership to the improvement of instruction.

Madison High School is located in a small town serving an urban and a large rural area. There are thirty-eight teachers on the high school staff. The system has a minimum central office staff. Consequently, the leadership for improving instruction is left to the superintendent and the principals. Mr. Jones is relatively new in office of principal, but he has been there long enough to have observed that not all is well with the science instruction in the school. The physics teacher serves as the head of the science department, and after thirty years on the job he has begun to coast toward retirement. Madison High School is much better known for

its winning football teams than for its instructional prowess, and the staff has been too busy to address itself to curriculum concerns.

Nearly one-third of the graduates go on to college. A number of these seem to be having more than usual trouble in college science courses. Science courses are the least popular among the courses at Madison. In addition, only one unit—general science in the ninth grade—is required for graduation.

Jones Begins

Mr. Jones begins his first step in his leadership role by making a personal assessment of the situation. He does this quietly, gathering various kinds of evidence and carefully evaluating it. Mr. Jones wants to be reasonably certain about the situation before he makes any moves, because there are the usual touchy personality and human relations factors involved. He is, however, convinced that the community wants good instruction.

CHECKING HIS JUDGMENT. Having satisfied himself that there is a problem, Mr. Jones seeks to check his judgment with the superintendent in a conference meeting. He brings his evidence to the superintendent as a check on his own thinking and to obtain support and sanction for moving ahead with trying to solve the problems and bring about improvements. He knows that his role in providing resources and perhaps a consultant has budget implications. The superintendent sees the problem quickly and encourages Mr. Jones to try to improve science instruction. Mr. Jones was fairly sure of this encouragement, but he is one who "plays it safe." Besides, he wants the superintendent to know that he is on his toes with respect to giving leadership to improvement of instruction.

CHECKING WITH STAFF. Mr. Jones contacts Mr. Smith, the head of the science department, and arranges an interview with him about his concerns regarding science instruction. To Mr. Smith, this is somewhat routine, since Mr. Jones and he have held appraisal conferences periodically. During the interview, the principal alerts Mr. Smith to some of his observations and concerns about the situation in science education in the school and suggests that some of the staff be involved in looking into the situation. He will arrange time, a meeting place, and perhaps a cup of coffee. Then they discuss which staff members should be involved in this initial review of the science problems. They agree that all the high school science teachers be brought together and that Mr. Jones will issue the invitation through Mr. Smith.

The meeting is held in Mr. Jones' office directly after the last period on a Tuesday afternoon. The cup of coffee is a good ice-breaker as well as lift at the close of the teaching day. Mr. Jones opens the meeting by suggesting that he and Mr. Smith have talked about this problem of science instruction and desire to get the science teachers' ideas on the matter. Mr. Jones presents only a few of the observations that he had discussed with Mr. Smith and the superintendent, so as not to overstructure the meeting or give the notion that the problems were already solved. He does point out the new need for science in our technologically oriented society, some of the enrollment figures on students taking advanced courses in science, and some of the literature on the need for strength in science education for our times. Then, as a leader, he points up some things to do—gather the facts, organize the information, interpret the information, hypothesize changes, test the changes, make further changes, continue to evaluate, and, eventually, arrive at some satisfactory solutions.

Members of the group make a number of good suggestions. One teacher is assigned to explore student attitudes toward science instruction. One challenges some of the figures published on the per cent of students taking science today as compared to yesteryear and volunteers to check these in the local school. Another teacher raises the issue of the adequacy of instructional materials in the school and agrees to look into it. It is agreed that these things be done and that the group meet again to look at the facts.

Science Curriculum Study Group Formed

The next meeting, held two weeks after the first, brings out some interesting information. The problem is larger than originally anticipated and it is agreed that more study should ensue. It is suggested, for instance, that it might be well to know what science teaching was going on in the elementary schools, that it might be well to know what other high schools were doing in similar circumstances, that some technical assistance and consultative services might be helpful, and that perhaps some elementary teacher might be involved for further exploration of the science instruction. An agreement is reached to meet regularly as a study group, and Mr. Jones promises to contact Mr. Pella from the university to act as a consultant to the group.

As the group continues to meet, Mr. Jones continues to expedite, coordinate, provide resources, arrange communication, get reports typed,

establish the right conditions for group activity, stimulate effort, see that the group sets up target dates for the accomplishment of portions of the work, and give recognition for progress and accomplishments.

Some Results

Although this case is mythical as far as school and names are concerned, it is an actual situation now in progress. The study group has made its first report to the staff and the board of education after a year's study. All teachers in that system now know about the scope and sequence of science instruction from grades one through twelve. The budget for the coming year includes funds for much new equipment in the laboratories, new text materials, and instructional aids. The group has sensed accomplishment and has been recognized for it. The study is continuing next year with several innovations to be tried out in science instruction, after which an evaluation will again be made.

This case is just one example of how a principal goes about initiating improvement of instruction through people on his staff. Although the details of the operations are too much to include here, it is clear how Mr. Jones operated as a leader, how he took responsibility for initiating the activity, marshalled resources, set up conditions, involved people, looked for group activity and individual growth, encouraged and kept things going, gave recognition, insisted on target dates for accomplishments, cleared the road for the implementation of new ideas and innovations to be tried, and encouraged evaluation and experimentation.

Other Examples

We have intimated throughout this chapter that leadership concerns itself with a wide variety of staff activities related to instruction. The perceptive leader will select and employ approaches appropriate to the situation and task as in the case cited above. For example, if a new building is being planned the architect should first be furnished specifications for the building that describe the instructional needs to be met by the structure. The administrator should provide leadership to a staff of teachers that help formulate the educational specifications for the building, and he should work with the architect in translating these specifications into the technical, working drawings.

The curriculum council, the committee on textbook selection, staff study groups, action research activities, evaluation and appraisal activities,

inservice growth and development projects, student affairs, guidance, school community relations, college relations, team teaching efforts, grouping, and discipline are among the many other areas where leadership of staff and community groups relates to instruction. Each activity is different, yet the same principles of leadership apply.

CONCLUSION

The quality of secondary education is a function of instructional leadership. A positive and direct relationship exists between the two. Quality in education is an elusive concept, particularly in a culture dedicated to maximum development of the potentials of all youth. It is, however, the objective in any appraisal or assessment of an educational program and is, therefore, a factor to be thoroughly understood by anyone who would assume the role of a leader of instruction.

The discussion of instructional leadership earlier in this volume, dealing with the task areas of the secondary school principal, is not by accident. Instruction comes first. The primacy of instructional leadership is indisputable, particularly in situations where there are competing demands on the principal's time and the content to be included in the secondary curriculum, and emerging concepts of the purposes and objectives of education.

The principal is the key person in instructional leadership. He needs a thorough understanding and appreciation of his job, so that he can use his unique opportunity to effect growth and improvement.

The relationship of instructional leadership to the other task areas, such as staff personnel, pupil personnel, management, and public relations, is easy to see. The principal's tasks, in all areas, should be directed toward good instruction. The final definition and implementation of quality educational provisions rests with the local communities under the leadership of competent instructional leaders.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss the reasons for instructional leadership receiving a priority rating in the high school principal's allotment of his time and energy.
2. Describe the implications to American secondary educational administration of the concept of education for all. Why has a high school

education come to be accepted as the common school education desirable for all youth?

3. Who should determine the goals and objectives of secondary education?
4. List and discuss some major administrative problems in a program of improvement of instruction in secondary education.
5. Show how the leadership role described here differs from that of the authoritarian leader. Is there a place in secondary educational administration for the authoritarian leader?
6. Discuss the premise that good leadership is concerned with the involvement and growth of individuals connected with the enterprise.
7. Suggest the kind of training you believe necessary to provide the kind of leadership envisioned in this chapter.

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chapter 6

STAFF PERSONNEL

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IS ONE OF the most important administrative task areas for which the secondary school principal is responsible. Administration, as commonly understood, means management. It may include management of either material, time, or personnel resources, or all three. The inter-relatedness of management problems is both obvious and inevitable. The focus here, however, is on staff personnel. The problems of student personnel administration are dealt with in Chapter 7. Any discussion of secondary school staff personnel must include consideration of the principal and the administrative staff, the teaching and instructional personnel, the service and noncertified personnel, and special service workers. The range and scope of staff personnel is apparent from the titles employed, such as principal, vice principal, dean, director, coordinator, supervisor, teacher, psychologist, case worker, clerk, secretary, nurse, custodian, engineer and many others. All are members of the team employed to man the varied and complex operations of the modern secondary school.

STAFF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

This volume emphasizes the team approach. Every employee is a member of a team dedicated to running the best school possible. Every position is

important both in itself and as it contributes to the corporate effort. In the final analysis, citizens, administrators, teachers, pupils, custodians and all others connected with the school must exhibit a high level of cooperation and teamwork if the secondary school is to rise above mediocrity to a high-quality educational institution. Bricks and mortar, fine buildings, may do much to enhance education, but the quality of the staff is the truly significant factor in the effectiveness of the school.

Staff Personnel Management Defined

The management of staff personnel is concerned with recruiting, assigning, and supervising people in all positions in the organization. It involves the general components of administration mentioned in Chapter 3—planning, directing, coordinating, controlling, and appraising. For our purposes, staff personnel management is that aspect of general administration that is concerned with the operation of all employed persons assigned to positions in the organization, who have a vested interest in the accomplishments and objectives of the organization. Although this definition is applicable to personnel management for all kinds of businesses, the educational enterprise is somewhat unusual in that management of personnel—students, professional workers and others—is a major administrative concern. Of the conventional managerial concerns—material, personnel, and operations—the chief concerns of the school administration are with personnel and operations.

Personnel Policies Needed

Staff personnel administration should operate from some well-understood and recognizable frame of reference. Such a reference may roughly be defined as a policy, that is, a plan of action sufficiently specific to provide a definite guide to action and flexible enough to allow for intelligent utilization and practical application. The development of sound, cooperatively formulated personnel policies is very important. The experiences of the National Education Association Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom in the area of personnel practices unquestioningly point up the need for better personnel policies.¹

Personnel policies are not a "cure-all" for all staff personnel management problems. However, many aspects of staffing, staff inter-relation-

¹ Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, National Education Association, *Developing Personnel Policies* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958).

ships, staff relations with the administration, and job relationships can be avoided by the existence and use of written policies.

THE PRINCIPAL

Since about 1820, with the beginning of the development of the public secondary school, the concept of the Principal has been evolving continuously. This evolution closely parallels the growth of secondary education. The academy and the independent secondary school required several teachers, one of whom became the "headmaster." Hence, in both public and semipublic secondary schools there arose a need for a principal teacher or a head of the school. In most instances, at least in the beginning and in the smaller schools, these principals taught a full schedule of classes in addition to their other duties of keeping records, caring for the school plant, and disciplining the students.

Growth of Secondary Schools

As school enrollments grew, the students attending became less highly selected. It became necessary to free the principal from his teaching, at least part of the time, so that he could work with students and visit and assist teachers. Scheduling, supervising instruction, and tending to public relations became part of his duties. Then, as cities grew and the burdens of the school committees became ever greater, the need for a superintendent of all the schools arose. Thus, by 1835, the hierarchy of administration, as we know it today, had developed.

Each decade was marked by increasing populations, more schools, and greater enrollments. School problems increased correspondingly. Heterogeneous student bodies, attendance laws, health and safety factors, use of leisure time and citizenship, all these became problems for the schools. Population mobility, immigration, and urbanization contributed to educational problems. The principal was looked to as a leader and a coordinator to assist in the solution of all these problems. Specialization and professionalization of the principal's job became a necessity.

Larger schools required larger staffs. Many inexperienced teachers required the assistance of the principal, so he became a trainer of teachers. Teachers looked to the experienced head for counsel and advice, for leadership. Even the more experienced teachers, facing new problems, looked to the principal for assistance in the solutions. Thus, in the past half-

century there has been a steady growth in the authority and responsibility of the principalship. In the smaller schools, the principal continues to do some teaching along with his other duties, but in the larger schools the position has become a full-time professional job.

The Principal and His Tasks

The administrative task areas of the principal have been described in Chapter 4. However, from the point of view of staff personnel, there are good indications that the job of the principal is not as well understood by the staff as it should be. Gauerke hints that there is confusion not equaled elsewhere in the public school system about the duties of the secondary school principal.² Teachers see his job as a number of routine duties, clerical work, and mechanics; and they fail to see his responsibility as the professional head of the school and the relation of this responsibility to the instructional program.

The foregoing observation suggests that an important part of the principal's job is to work closely with his teachers so that they may see his role in its true light. If a teacher fails, the principal fails, and vice versa. If the team concept is fostered and developed, more chances for successful operations and fewer chances for misunderstandings accrue. The principal is responsible for developing the team approach and the desirable attitudes that go with it. Eikenberry views the principal as one who in a measure has the responsibilities of all the members of his staff and, in addition, the responsibilities for leading the entire staff in developing the objectives of the school, for coordinating all those activities that grow out of a dynamic program of secondary education, and for making decisions.³

A review of a number of studies of job expectancies of the high school principal reveals top priority for leadership in the professional improvement of staff. In studying the attitudes toward the practices of principals, Austin and Collins found a strong emphasis on the leadership role. Eleven inter-related areas of job performance were classified as follows:

1. Organizing, managing, and coordinating components of the school.
2. Improving curriculum and teaching.

² Warren E. Gauerke, *Legal and Ethical Responsibilities of School Personnel* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959).

³ Dan Harrison Eikenberry, *Training and Experience Standards for Principals of Secondary Schools*, Bulletin No. 181 (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1951).

3. *Gaining confidence and support of staff members.*
4. *Winning respect and approval of students.*
5. *Enlisting support and cooperation in the community.*
6. *Delegating authority and responsibility.*
7. *Increasing his own professional competence.*
8. *Participating in community affairs.*
9. *Making policies and decisions.*
10. *Working with higher administration.*
11. *Executing policies and decisions.*⁴

Competencies in these areas, along with related qualifications, provide a basis for recruiting and selecting a secondary school principal.

Selection of the Principal

The selection of the right man to head the school is of utmost importance. Two important aspects of the process are examined here: the mechanics of recruitment and selection and the specifications and qualifications for the position. Too many principals have been selected by questionable methods and upon extraneous qualifications. Popularity in the community, a good coaching record, a Beau Brummel personality, and a good record as a teacher may or may not qualify the person to be a principal. The administration of secondary education involves tasks and competencies of a highly specialized nature. High priority must be given to the qualifications that will ensure success in the leadership and administrative role. This requires a careful assessment of the local needs and requirements along with a careful analysis of the situation in which the person is expected to function.

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION. The procedure for recruitment and selection begins with an official announcement of a vacancy. It is important to alert staff members and others that a new principal is being sought, for no one should apply for a position until it is officially declared vacant. The next important task is to assess the local situation with a view toward developing a statement of the specifications and qualifications desired in the candidate. *This stock-taking is a most helpful means of determining the kind of leadership desired in candidates for the position.*

Various techniques are used by superintendents and boards of

⁴ David B. Austin and James S. Collins, *A Study of Attitudes Toward the High School Principalship*, Bulletin No. 215 (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1956).

education in announcing vacancies and inviting candidates to apply. In addition to making local announcements, teacher placement offices of colleges and universities are sent statements of the qualifications and specifications desired in the candidates, and requested to nominate a given number of persons. In some instances, the placement officers are directed to send names, alert potential candidates, and invite them to make application in writing. In other instances, the placement officials are requested only to send credentials, with the assumption that the local school officials will contact the candidates selected or screened to make formal application. The trend appears to be in the direction of the latter method, thus obviating the deluge of applications from many aspirants who fall far short of meeting the established qualifications and specifications.

FINAL SCREENING OF CANDIDATES. Processing and screening qualified candidates becomes the next task in the selection of a principal. Among the more elaborate selection procedures employed is the plan used in Covina, California, schools.⁵ Here openings are announced, specifications formulated, placement officers notified, applications invited and applicants notified of the final screening, and detailed testing and rating procedures employed by the system in determining a final group of eligible candidates. The applications and credentials are reviewed and rated by a committee of five—two principals, two representatives from the superintendent's office, and the director of curriculum. Local candidates receive a bonus of five points on the factors of training and experience. All candidates are then required to take an examination prepared by the Educational Testing Service. The results of the rating on credentials and the test scores form the bases for the first eliminations.

The top twelve are called back for further examinations and interviews. Another committee of five, this time including one teacher, is established. The twelve candidates are divided into two groups and each group goes with the committee to visit local school situations. Candidates are asked to make careful observations and later to suggest how these situations might be improved. Each group is also asked to discuss what has been observed, in order to provide the committee with information as to the candidates' articulateness and behavior in a group situation. Finally, a thirty-minute personal interview with the committee is provided for each candidate. Upon a review and evaluation of all the evidence the committee

⁵ Paul Salmon, "How to Select a Principal," *School Management*, May 1959, p. 47.

selects three or four candidates, from which group the superintendent and the board select a principal.

Throughout the process every effort is made to keep the screening procedure objective. For instance, the results of the first committee's ratings and the test scores are tallied and computed by someone in the personnel department. Numbers are used for identification on papers, and raters are not identified by name. Every precaution is taken to assure fairness to all candidates.

A general procedure suggested by this sample would involve: (1) announcing the vacancy, (2) preparing an analysis of the job, (3) formulating requirements for the candidates, (4) alerting placement agencies of the need for candidates' providing them with full information, (5) receiving applications, (6) conducting preliminary screening to include only those who meet general requirements, (7) obtaining enriched credentials through testing, interviewing, and other techniques to select a small number of highly qualified candidates, (8) establishing a rank order list of two or more finalists from which a selection is made.

EVALUATION OF CANDIDATES. The importance of finding the right person to fit the position cannot be overemphasized. More and more school systems are employing the best professional and psychological counsel available for assistance in an orderly, objective, and businesslike procedure for screening and selecting personnel. Among the several services and procedures widely used is that developed by William Flesher and Marie Flesher.⁶ This procedure has three distinct advantages: (1) Evaluative evidence is secured from a variety of sources and by more than one means. (2) A number of different people assist in the appraisal. (3) An important part of the evaluative data is secured by an impartial professional agency outside the school district.

The procedure consists of an essay examination, an objective test, an interview or oral examination, and appraisal of credentials, and a "field rating." Both aspects of the written testing are supervised by an agency outside the school district, although the tests themselves are usually administered in the school district. Consultative assistance for other parts of the procedure is provided by the educational testing consultants, utilizing forms that have been developed to serve as guides to boards of education and school administrators in securing and recording evidence. These

⁶ William R. Flesher and Marie A. Flesher, *A Procedure for Evaluating Prospective Administrative Personnel for Schools* (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, The Ohio State University, 1958), p. 7, mimeographed.

procedures and tests have been undergoing constant evaluation and refinement since 1948 and have been employed in a large number of personnel selections throughout the country.

Here, as in other personnel selection assistance plans, the consultants work closely with the local school authorities in the development of job specifications and appraisal of local needs. Ultimately a select, ranked list of candidates, from which a selection may be made, is made available to the school authorities.

Relation of the Principal to Those Above Him

The secondary school principal is usually one of several principals in an educational system. His operations are influenced by those in authority above him—the superintendent, central office, board of education, the state department of education, accrediting agencies, and the like, his fellow principals in the system, and his staff. In practice, the relation of the principal to the superintendent and the central office may vary greatly, depending mainly upon the general philosophy of administration in the system. The policies, regulations, and rules prescribed by the board and central administration differ from system to system. Some school boards have elaborate and definite policies and regulations affecting the operation of the secondary school. In other situations, many of the operations of the high school are left to the judgment of the principal and his staff. The more able principal welcomes the opportunity to use his own ingenuity in a situation that allows wide latitude in terms of local autonomy while being scrupulously careful to respect this freedom in operation. In either case, he must maintain good communication with the superintendent and sense items that require clearance before being acted upon.

Successful principals make good use of administrative staff meetings with the superintendent and central office personnel. Many potential difficulties can be circumvented by understandings developed through discussions at such meetings or through personal conferences. Smooth operation requires that the principal have an appreciation of the elastic limits of autonomy and is perceptive of the expectations of those above him. Some principles that the authors have developed and found to be helpful in these circumstances are the following:

1. *The principal's role in the administrative organization should be carefully defined and understood by all concerned.*
2. Policies, regulations, and rules should be periodically reviewed and

interpreted for the purposes of maintaining thorough understandings.

3. A proper basis for two-way communication should be established and maintained.
4. The delegation of authority and responsibility should be thoroughly understood and respected by the principal and those above him.
5. Ingenuity and personal resourcefulness on the part of the principal in his operations and functions should be expected and respected.
6. The legal responsibilities vested in the several administrative positions in the school system should be intelligently respected.

In practice, the trend appears to be in the direction of granting greater autonomy to the principal in the operation of his school. Correspondingly, the principal seems to be becoming increasingly involved in cooperative general school administration teamwork, and more is being expected of him in this regard.

The Principal and Other Principals

Most local schools are administered by principals who are regarded as responsible heads acting under the directions of the superintendent and the official regulations of the board of education. In a vast majority of the school systems throughout the country, which have one high school serving the community, the secondary school principal occupies a unique position. There may be several elementary principals in the organization, but he alone represents secondary education. Our culture, perhaps for good reasons, leans toward setting the status position of the secondary school principal just a little higher than that for the elementary principal. Not that his work is any more important educationally, but the secondary school head does have an over-all relationship to the community not shared by the principals of elementary schools. His interscholastic relationships with other schools, his added responsibilities for cocurriculum activities, his relations with accrediting bodies and colleges, and his association with the terminal common school educational offerings in the community, all add to his status.

The effective secondary school principal should accept leadership in working cooperatively with other principals. He must give consideration to this responsibility both within his school system and in his relations with other secondary schools and other school systems. The increasing

mobility of students, the need for curriculum articulation from kindergarten through secondary school, and the opportunities for educational guidance and coordination, all make it mandatory for principals on all levels to establish and maintain harmonious relationships.

Likewise, the principal has an obligation to his profession. He should become identified with his local and national professional organizations. Participation in studies, conferences, and projects, together with contributions—articles, papers, ideas—are some of the means by which contact with a professional organization takes on real meaning and value. The need for sharing experiences should not be overlooked. Others are probably groping through the same problem areas, which are apt to be found in any local situation. The effective principal is constantly alert to new ideas and opportunities to improve himself in service.

Since communities vary greatly as to size, complexity, philosophy, and organization, it is difficult to describe accurately in detail the relations of the secondary school principal to those above him and to his professional peers. Jacobson and others point out seven generalizations that seem to be warranted:

1. The principal is directly responsible to the superintendent and under usual organization patterns does not have direct administrative relations with the board of education.
2. The principal is responsible for carrying out the administrative policies of the school system and is the superintendent's chief representative in the local school in his charge.
3. The principal's relations with intermediary administrative officers—supervisors and service personnel in the central office—are determined by the superintendent and, we would hope, the cooperatively agreed upon functional policies in the administrative organization.
4. In large city systems the principal's direct contact with the superintendent's office may be mainly through a deputy, assistant superintendent, area superintendent, or similar intermediary officer, but access to the superintendent should always be possible.
5. Assistant principals should be directly responsible to the principal rather than to the central office much in the same manner as the principal is related to the central office.
6. Definite channels and policies should be established and respected with regard to the principal's relationships with noncertified personnel in the central office—business managers, clerks and others.
7. The status of the principal is largely determined by the policies and

philosophy of the central office—he is either the intellectual and professional leader of his school, a glorified office boy, or something in between.⁷

The principal's part in and obligation for helping to determine his own position should not be underestimated. More and more principals are being called upon by the central administration to assist in policy determinations and to contribute as a member of the administrative team. The principal should accept these opportunities whenever presented and feel a responsibility for making worthwhile contributions, both in his own interest and in the over-all values to be gained for the prestige and professionalization of the principalship.

The Principal and His Staff

Someone recently posed the question, "What is an assistant principal?" He might well have asked the same question about a dean of girls, the attendance clerk, a teacher, or the custodian. The person asking the question was inferring that from the point of view of staff relations the assistant principal may be one thing in a given situation and quite another in a different situation. In one school he is a positive integer in the administrative staff, with specific delegated authority and responsibilities. In another school, he is just a leg boy for the principal. The dilemma of the assistant principal and others on the administrative staff is often more pronounced because, unlike the teacher, the custodian, and some others on the staff, their time and scheduled duties are not fixed.

The question about the assistant principal is not nearly as facetious as it might appear. Too often the assistant principal is the forgotten man in the secondary school administrative force. This is symptomatic of a real need to explore staff relationships between the principal and those who serve under him. The principal's office is a social institution, respected as something apart in the school by staff and students. It is a place where you "go to" and "come from" for a variety of reasons, some good, some not so good. Feelings toward the principal's office vary greatly. In some schools it is a pleasant place where people enjoy stepping in, in other situations it is a bastion of authority, a place to avoid as much as possible.

The key to feelings about the principal's office rests with the principal's attitude toward and philosophy of staff relations. There can be no question about the principal's office being the nerve center of a secondary

⁷ Paul B. Jacobson, William C. Reavis, and James D. Logsdon, *The Effective School Principal* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), p. 31.

school operation. But how it functions as this center of activity is directly related to the attitude and feelings of staff and students toward it.

With respect to staff personnel relations, principals' offices can be categorized roughly as follows:

1. The big "I," the typical autocratic situation where the principal feels that he must make all decisions and where there is a minimum of delegation of authority.
2. The benevolent father approach, kindly and understanding, but still a one-man show.
3. The laissez-faire approach, noninterference with little or no direction or service.
4. The ultra-democratic plan, everything decided by committee.
5. The ideal principal's office, friendly, democratic, efficient, effective, and characterized by delegated and understood assignments and responsibilities and with wide staff involvement in matters affecting personnel.

Some principals have found a staff advisory council helpful in establishing and maintaining good staff relations. The advisory council, discussed in some detail in Chapter 14, is a small group elected by the staff, either by departments or at large, with whom the principal meets regularly to discuss issues and problems. The council seems to work most effectively where the group does not have legislative power but remains strictly advisory. The advisory council is not a counterpart to the teacher's association. Its only relationship with the latter organization lies in the fact that members of the council are elected by it. The advisory council is an excellent medium for two-way communication between the principal and his staff. He can sample staff opinion and, in turn, the members can relay the view of the administration to the staff in general.

Importance of Communication

Ramseyer and his associates define communication as the "ebb and flow of feelings and ideas between people."⁸ The arts of communication are involved in the dynamics of human relations as related to staff personnel management. Often the root of personnel difficulties can be traced to faulty communication or to a total lack of communication. In a study of

⁸ John A. Ramseyer, Lewis E. Harris, Millard S. Pond, and Howard Wakefield, *Factors Affecting Educational Administration: Guideposts for Research and Action*, School Community Development Study Series, No. 2 (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1955), p. 51.

teacher attitudes toward the efforts of the secondary school principal, Blackman found that schools with "high communication" indicated a much more favorable teacher attitude than in schools of "low communication."⁹

Ebb and flow indicates two-way communication and assumes that proper channels are available for the process. It is the responsibility of the principal to establish and keep open these channels. This is an aspect of administration that requires constant appraisal.

WORKING EFFECTIVELY

Staff personnel relations have their basis in any school situation where professional workers carry out their responsibilities to the best of their abilities, whether working as individuals or in groups. Much of the staff member's contribution must of necessity be of an individual nature, but there are many instances where the group approach to an activity has special merit. Under all circumstances it is the sum of individual contributions, each in a sense helping the other, that makes up the total impact of a staff effort. Cooperation is the key concept. This is a major concern of the principal. He must be skillful in assisting staff members to improve their competence in making their individual contributions as well as to gain competence in working together with others on specific assignments.

Wynn's studies of interpersonal relations in educational administration have indicated that the school leader must plan on spending about ninety per cent of his time working with people.¹⁰ There seems to be little doubt that the teacher spends a similar proportion of his time working with people. So it would appear to be important that both principal and teacher know how to work with others effectively.

Working with Individuals

Much of the principal's contact with staff is on an individual basis. He is constantly conferring with individual teachers about assignments, loads, schedules, students, instruction, and many other concerns. Sometimes it may be a matter of a grievance or an evaluation of the teacher's perform-

⁹ Charles A. Blackman and David H. Jenkins, *Antecedents and Effects of Administrator Behavior*, SCDS Series, No. 3 (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1956), pp. 52-55.

¹⁰ Richard Wynn, "The Climate of Good School Staff," *Educational Outlook*, 27:63-69, January 1953.

ance as discussed elsewhere in this chapter. It is through this person-to-person relationship that he executes much of his professional leadership.

One of the more successful principals we know says he never approaches a personal contact with a staff member without first keeping *three things in mind: his own preparation, attitude, and readiness to discuss an issue with the person; a thorough speculation on how the other person feels and his readiness to discuss the matter; and the possible positive outcomes of the conference or contact in light of the probabilities involved in the situation.* In other words, he does not go into a situation before he has had time to think it through. Postponing a contact on these grounds sometimes pays big dividends.

The principal has an obligation to set a good example in personnel matters. Prestwood says that the principal should do the following:

Show respect for each individual in his face-to-face relations.

Be courteous at all times, even when the individual with whom he is speaking has shown in the past that he does not merit such consideration.

Reveal in whatever he does or says that he is a person of integrity.

Understand the individual with whom he is conferring, know something about his background and his abilities and about his needs and emotional adjustment.

Practice an open-door policy and be available for individual conferences.

Be warm, friendly, and considerate of the feelings and welfare of the other person.

Never criticize anyone before others or discuss in any way before others matters which pertain to the personal.

Always speak clearly.¹¹

Conferences have many important applications in the modern secondary school as an administrative, instructional, and public relations aid. Every staff member should become competent in conference procedures and techniques. Some of the hallmarks of good conference procedures are privacy and freedom from interruptions, informality—putting the conferee at ease and gaining rapport, maintenance of composure, time for listening, intelligent use of questions, judicious use of non-directive and directive techniques, fairness and justice, arrival at firm

¹¹ Elwood L. Prestwood, *The High School Principal and Staff Work Together* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957), p. 52.

decisions and definite results, summarization and recapitulation of common understandings growing out of the meeting, and evaluation of the conference as a growth experience.

Working with Groups

Much attention is given in this volume and elsewhere in the literature to the group process, the committee approach, the team, the workshop, and the conference. We hear about "brainstorming" and the collective approach to problem-solving. All of these have merit, but no group method is a substitute for individual effort and achievement. It is rather an extension of individual involvement by the pooling of individual resources and sharing of broad responsibilities. It provides a means by which the leader influence for growth of the participant can be extended beyond any possibilities under methods of individual contact. Hence, both group and individual contact methods tend to serve the same general purposes—the provision of better education for youth and the growth of individuals in the process. Group meetings have the added advantages of extending economical communication, stimulating individuals through group interaction, building morale, developing leadership, and providing media for better acquaintanceship.

Care should be taken to differentiate between group and mass meetings. Certainly there are times when the entire faculty must be brought together in a mass meeting for given purposes. A group meeting is a small number of individuals, say, approximately six to a dozen persons, assembled for a specific purpose.

There are many ways in which a mass can be divided into groups. This is sometimes accomplished with the larger group by one of several mechanisms, such as the "6-6" method, where the large group is divided into groups of six and allowed six minutes to discuss a phase of a problem, with a reporter bringing the ideas back to the main group. Another technique is the "buzz" session, where small groups meet separately to discuss a matter and bring back the ideas in a report to the larger assembled group. Still another method is the committee technique, where members of a larger group join or elect to work on committees established to accomplish certain purposes. This method is often used in workshop conferences where the general meeting is used to delineate a problem and the discussion sessions are provided to assure close interaction and participation of the members.

GROUP LEADER ROLES. The obvious importance of the leadership function in a group meeting is well understood. Whether it is the principal or a staff member in the leadership role, he must check the physical setting for the meeting—room, furniture, supplies, light, ventilation. Participants must come to know each other and know who is speaking. The agenda, goals, purposes and the direction of the session must be preplanned. The discussion must be initiated and maintained. Without apparent domination the leader must keep the meeting moving toward desired goals. Opinions and points of view must be anticipated so that they may be tested and appraised. Each proposal and idea presented must receive proper consideration. Occasionally, nonparticipants must be encouraged to comment and the overtalkative dissuaded. The leader must maintain good communication while the group is in session and between sessions, both with regard to participants and to others concerned with the work of the group. Timing is very important. Meetings should start and stop on time. Few things are more exasperating than meetings that do not respect the schedules of participants.

ROLES OF THE GROUP. Group participants have roles, too. Many individuals are likely to assume more than one role during the group experience. Benne and Muntyan identify the following three possible roles that staff members assume as they work together:

1. Group task roles through which the members push group effort to accomplish certain goals.
2. Group building and maintaining roles through which the group sustains itself.
3. Individual roles through which participants satisfy their own needs as aside from the group.¹²

The first two roles clearly have a positive effect on the group activity; the third a possible negative effect. In other words, if the group functions mainly to satisfy the quirks and needs of each participant there is little likelihood that the desired group achievement will be accomplished.

Group members usually play various roles during the course of the meeting or series of meetings. The leader joins in playing these roles. These roles are sometimes identified as: (1) initiators—those who bring up new ideas, suggest ways, and propose solutions; (2) information seekers—those who ask questions and seek clarifications; (3) information givers—those

¹² Kenneth D. Benne and Bozidar Muntyan, *Human Relations in Curriculum Change* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1951), p. 98.

conscious of the roles being played at various times and places. However, the mechanics of contacts and inter-relationships, no matter how interesting and intriguing, are but means to ends in staff relationships. Achievement and production through contacts of all kinds in solving problems and effecting growth in participants is the ultimate goal.

TEACHER SUPPLY, RECRUITMENT, AND SELECTION

According to Trump, the instructional staff of the school of the future may include the following kinds of personnel:

- Professional teachers (teacher specialists, general teachers)
- Instructional assistants
- Clerks
- General aides
- Community consultants
- Staff specialists ¹⁴

Teacher specialists will include experienced teachers, with career interests and abilities, highly trained to teach and supervise instruction in a given subject area. General teachers, who may not look forward to teaching as a lifelong career, will be qualified persons with less experience. These teachers will assume the roles of consultants and observers for discussion and study groups. The instructional assistants will be technicians selected and trained for specific parts of the teaching job. General aides will act as supervisors of students in noninstructional situations such as the playgrounds, auditorium, cafeteria, and corridors. Community consultants will be community resource people used in specific assignments and situations in which they are better qualified than any teacher on the staff. The staff specialists will include workers in such areas as guidance, research, health, visiting teacher, and similar areas connected with the instructional program.

It may be some time before we will staff our secondary schools completely along the lines described above, but there are good indications that the challenges of quality and quantity in education will direct our course in some such direction. In fact, a number of vanguard secondary schools are already being staffed along such lines. Secondary schools would profit by reviewing this plan when recruiting and selecting staff personnel.

¹⁴ J. Lloyd Trump, *Images of the Future* (Urbana, Ill : Commission on Experimental Study of the Utilization of Staff in the Secondary School, 1959), p. 15.

The questions raised here concerning the use of staff time are not new. Our objective is to spotlight the need for more consideration to the whole problem of effective utilization of staff personnel. Desirable staff relations will not be served by ineffective and inappropriate use of people in professional positions.

The older concepts of teacher-pupil ratios must be re-evaluated when we envision various group sizes in instructional activities and the implementation of study-resource spaces where students may accomplish much learning on their own. When students are reading, listening to tapes, observing films and slides, working on self-teaching and self-appraisal machines, doing research with laboratory equipment, thinking, writing, and participating in more or less individual study activities, the old ideas about teacher-pupil ratios are hardly applicable. It might be more appropriate to consider the number of master teachers needed, along with the number of general teachers, instructors, and aides, for the secondary school of any given size. In any discussion of ratios, the avenues to learning, the learning activities required and the appropriate professional personnel must replace the old head-count basis for determining staff requirements.

Recruitment and Selection

Short supply of good teachers is a continuing problem. Economic trends and competition for human resources and manpower often affect teacher supply more critically than other occupations. Although salary factors are comparatively stable in the teaching profession, change comes more slowly. There can be little doubt about the fact that many potentially good teachers leave the profession for more attractive salaries outside the field. Salary considerations, however, are only part of the problem. Working conditions, fringe benefits, prestige, time for preparation, and other socioeconomic factors also play an important part in teacher supply.

Recruitment problems are also related to subject-matter areas. There is often a time-lag between the introduction of or emphasis on certain subject areas and the supply of trained personnel to man the new positions. We have faced this in vocational home economics, in commercial subjects, and more recently in the fields of mathematics and science.

In addition to competition from other occupations, salary considerations, socioeconomic factors, and critical area shortages, the supply of teachers is directly related to increasing enrollments. An ever growing

the selection and hiring of teachers for his school. He is in the best position to know his personnel needs, and no one is better able to provide an analysis of the responsibilities to be taken over by the new person. He knows the other staff members and associates and is able to involve them in establishing specifications for the new staff person desired. The principal is the person most directly connected with future orientation, supervision, and inservice training of the new person, and in participating in the selection he automatically assumes some of the responsibility for assuring the success of the teacher.

There are many factors to be taken into consideration in the principal's participation in teacher selection and hiring. In the medium-size, one-secondary-school community, principals appear to be taking the most active part in staff procurement. It is not unusual to find the principal and a staff member visiting the prospective candidate in his present teaching position to gain better insights into his suitability for a vacancy. In the large multiple-high-school community, this is an impossibility. The personnel department has a tremendous job recruiting and establishing eligibility lists for various positions. In these cases and in situations where transfer lists effect selection procedures, the principal works largely from a list or lists of names made available to him. In some instances he merely accepts the person assigned to his school. Principals in some of the larger school complexes have less to do with teacher selection than their counterparts in the smaller communities. It is likewise true that in some of the larger cities—through high requirements, required teacher examinations, and careful screening by divisions of personnel—the caliber of teachers on eligibility lists is often excellent.

The participation of principals in selecting and hiring teachers and the procedures utilized in recruitment and selection should be recognized for their significance. French and his associates comment that the principal and his staff have no greater professional responsibility than that of selecting new members for the school staff.¹⁵ If this one task is done well enough the success of the school is assured. This suggests that when a vacancy occurs, or is reliably predicted, the administration should begin the search for a replacement aggressively. On each occasion an appraisal of the entire staff composition as well as an appraisal of immediate and future staff needs should be made. What extra assistance in cocurriculum activities is needed or anticipated? Are there staff members who will be

¹⁵ Will French, J. Dan Hull, and B. L. Dodds, *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1957), p. 155.

gram in the school. Thus, it is imperative that principals give attention to retaining staff members and securing the longest possible tenure on the part of teachers.

Better salaries will help to hold teachers, but pay is just one of the factors that keep the staff member happy. Working conditions, status and prestige in the community, protection against unwarranted demands in school and in the community, personnel policies, and professional satisfactions are equally important factors in keeping a staff together. The administrator has a responsibility to upgrade all factors that assist in the retention of staff. The dividends for his effort are better staff morale, longer tenure, professional growth and development, and, consequently, an improved program of education.

OTHER STAFF PERSONNEL CONCERNS

Considerable attention has been given in this chapter to staffing the modern secondary school, to creating a working staff team, and to the role of the principal in connection with those two important aspects of administration. Good leadership, good staff, and effective working relationships are the keys to successful secondary school operation. Although space does not permit full treatment, mention should be made of other staff personnel concerns related to personnel management in relation to the responsibilities of the principal.

Implementing Personnel Policies

It is the responsibility of the principal and the administration to take the initiative with respect to policy formulation, interpretation, and implementation. The system-wide personnel policies, which relate to all staff members in the system, should be written in some convenient format that makes them readily available to all persons. Such policies might include salary provisions, tenure, transfer practices, sick leave, assignment, orientation, inservice education, evaluation and promotion, demotion, discharge, benefits and services, health and safety services, staff participation in management, decisions about teaching controversial subjects and issues, academic freedom, schedule of hours, utilization of substitute teachers, and special provisions for instruction.

The principal should be conversant with all general policies of the system, both those that concern personnel directly and those that may be

Inservice Education

Continued inservice growth is the hallmark of every profession. The need for this continued growth is increasingly apparent in an era of progress and change, particularly in education, for few fields of knowledge have remained static. An effective teacher must keep abreast of the times. Research has discovered much that needs to be translated into the content and practices of education. Again, it is the responsibility of the principal to encourage and assist in planning inservice education experiences. These experiences may include summer school, travel, research, or graduate study, but many are to be found within the school itself. Through proper leadership and organization, some of the instructional problems of evaluation, contacts with citizen groups, and public relations activities can be made the basis of very worthwhile inservice education experiences.

It is generally recognized among secondary school administrators that one of their most difficult problems of staff or personnel management is that of dealing with teachers who have ceased to grow professionally. Inservice growth experiences should be and are required of staff members in many school systems. The principal should be able and willing to counsel with his staff on matters of inservice training. Moreover, he should work for proper incentives for inservice training through recognition on the salary schedule, through promotions, assignments, and delegated responsibilities.

Teacher Welfare

Teacher welfare is concerned with the personal and professional elements of the environment that have a direct relationship to the morale, efficiency and well-being of staff members. The impact of human relations on personnel management and employee-employer relationships is a growing phenomenon. Efforts to maintain and improve the morale of the working force are investments in staff production and better employee efficiency. Welfare factors have become a part of the bargaining for new employees and the holding of older employees. Indeed, the teaching profession is in serious competition with other occupations on the matter of welfare provisions for employees.

The principal must be aware of teacher welfare within the framework of a tax-supported organization. There are definite legal limits to the insurance, hospitalization plans, retirement pensions, released time arrangements, paid vacations, and the like in publicly supported enterprises.

All workers identify themselves in one manner or other with the place they work. They are often in a position to meet the public and make contacts with the students, to provide information, directions, and assistance. When they feel that they are a part of the organization, their loyalty and spirit is reflected in work output, in cooperation with other staff personnel, and in the general morale about the school. They come to their positions with needs similar to those on the instructional staff—orientation, supervision, inservice training and improvement. It is the task of the principal to work with the administration in acquiring and retaining a good staff of service personnel.

Recognition of Noncertified Personnel

Noncertified and service personnel should be fully informed about many of the general activities in the school program. General notices should reach service personnel as well as the instructional group. Words of appreciation are most welcome, and a commendation now and then from the principal will do much to bolster morale. Recognition for years of service, recognition at the time of retirement, or a word of congratulation upon promotion are time-tested techniques by which the administrator enhances the status and the effectiveness of these employees.

The administrator can often be of major assistance to noncertified personnel in helping them analyze and evaluate their work and contributions to the school. He is in the position to indicate the significance of the worker's efforts in relation to discipline, public relations, school morale, and the teamwork of all school employees.

Every worker is important, first as a person and secondly as a contributing member of the staff of the school. It is sometimes necessary for the principal to help instructional staff members to a more complete realization of the fact that *noncertified personnel play a significant role in the day-to-day operation of the school enterprise*. Understanding between the certified and the noncertified employees is most desirable. Such a situation is brought about only through careful nurturing and perceptive handling by a leader who has a proper over-all view and appreciation of staff personnel relations.

CONCLUSION

Personnel administration is one of the most important responsibilities of the secondary school administrator. The principal is the key person in a

good staff relations program, initiator of personnel policies, and the coordinator of administrative, instructional, and noninstructional personnel.

The principal assumes a working relationship with those above him, those on his administrative staff, those on the instructional staff, and those on the noninstructional staff. He is responsible for seeing that his educational unit works in harmony with the over-all educational organization in the community. A significant aspect of this responsibility lies in the personnel management of all workers connected with the secondary school.

The attitudes and competencies of the principal are of utmost importance in problems concerning staff personnel. He must be capable in recruitment, selection, orientation, inservice training, evaluation, policy initiation, policy implementation, communication, and working with individuals and groups. He is charged with the over-all coordination of all employees and, as such, should be a student of group dynamics, social interaction, morale factors, sound employment practices, and personnel management techniques. In the discharge of his responsibilities he must be constantly mindful of the ethics of his profession and the over-all relationship of staff to the purposes and goals of secondary education.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Select a high school of your acquaintance and list the titles of all employees under the following categories:
 - a. Administrative
 - b. Instructional—"certified"
 - c. Noninstructional—"noncertified"
 - d. Special service
2. Discuss the ratio of noninstructional to instructional employees in the modern high school. What is the trend? Why?
3. Describe the selection procedures for the principalship of a high school with which you are familiar.
4. List the theories and techniques of group leadership and discuss their values and relationships to the high school principal.
5. Develop a personnel policy related to some personnel practice. How does a staff rule differ from a policy?
6. Analyze a teachers' handbook for staff personnel implications.
7. Discuss the implications of the instructional staff classification described in *Images of the Future*.

8. How can inservice staff training be improved? Suggest a program for the beginning, the journeyman, and the veteran staff member.
9. Discuss the implications for utilization of staff brought on by educational TV, cooperative or team teaching, teaching machines, and similar instructional innovations.

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ADMINISTRATION OF PUPIL PERSONNEL

ENERVATED AFTER A DAY OF grappling with one after another seemingly inconsequential problem, many educators have been heard to say, facetiously, "This would be a good way to make a living if it weren't for the students." The heart of every school is the individual learner to be served by it, and he is even more basic than students in the collective sense. A genuine concern for and understanding of the individual student is a prerequisite for anyone who chooses education as his working field. This concern and understanding must shine forth, in fair weather as well as in foul, for nothing is more dispiriting, especially to the immature learner, than to feel that his teacher "really doesn't understand or like kids."

In a sense, it is probably more important that the secondary school administrator have and be readily able to communicate this concern and understanding than it is for the isolated teacher in the school. With the departmentalized organization of most secondary schools, it is mathematically improbable that the individual pupil, in the course of his day, would encounter nothing but "unconcerned" teachers who "just didn't understand." However, whether the principal wants this role or not, he is the ultimate authority figure in most secondary schools. He usually represents the "court of last resort," and whatever his actions he must communi-

cate respect for and understanding of those with whom he deals. These actions often affect persons beyond those originally involved. Policy is set, decisions made, and an emotional climate established by what the administrator says and does. In a classroom situation, where there is day-by-day, face-to-face contact, the teacher is in the advantageous position of not having to worry unduly about consistency and the possibility of being misinterpreted. A canceling-out process exists, an atmosphere of give-and-take prevails, and an over-all favorable tone results if there are enough of the crucial actions on the positive side of the ledger. Essentially, this is the same process that operates in the family, between a child and his parents. An administrator, however, by the nature of his work, does not enjoy this advantage as far as students are concerned. His contacts with them are less constant and less often on a face-to-face basis. It is, therefore, important that his understandings and concerns find indirect expression.

A POINT OF VIEW

It is unrealistic to expect the principal to have depth understandings of all subject-matter fields. His rapport and effectiveness lie mainly in his understanding of the teaching-learning process and in his ability to work productively with people. In addition, his understanding is buttressed by his knowledge of the objectives of secondary school education. These skills, which link him to the staff, are essentially those that enable him to work productively with students.

It is the responsibility of the administrator to relate his actions to objectives that are meaningful to students. This is not, of course, to imply that his work is essentially between students and himself, for in more cases than not it is not. Communication, however, is not dependent on face-to-face relationships. Understanding results from a much more basic ingredient. In working at the central job of developing objectives and translating them into program, the administrator is now with staff, again with members of the community, at another time with students, and more likely still further with combinations of these groups. In all these relationships, his field of expertness is his knowledge of the secondary school student.

A Case in Point

Assume a community in which the principal is a member of a local service organization, as is often the case. This organization is particularly anxious

to find a service theme for the year. Through its education committee, the suggestion is made that members of the organization become a "guidance pool" to counsel with secondary school students about their vocational choices. Representatives of business, industry, and personal service professions, they become excited about the possibility of arranging a day with the principal, who in this relationship is also a member of the group, for them to meet with students and tell them about their professions. As enthusiasm mounts, plans are suggested to involve mechanics, accountants, secretaries, technicians, and others on the staff of the organization each represents. Recognizing the potential worth of the objective—to use community resources as a guidance facility—the principal puts into play what he knows about the nature of effective learning. A short shot, and somewhat in an atmosphere of ballyhoo, might not accomplish the objective as well as would a more carefully thought-out program.

He raises a question, "Would it help if we could find out in advance what specific jobs the students are interested in?" To practical men, this makes sense. Then the principal suggests that the vocational interest tests used at the school, plus some additional counseling sessions, might pinpoint the picture to where the students would have a more specific interest and ability base from which to start.

He further asks, "Would it make sense if these selected students could be released part of a day to come to your offices where you would have a chance to show as well as tell them what your jobs are like?"

This, too, causes nods of agreement. From the buzzing conversation around the table, snatches are heard, ". . . can take them to lunch . . . give them a real cook's tour of the plant."

The principal concludes, laughingly, "I think we've hit on a real service project, but remember, show them the tough nuts you have to crack as well as the glamorous sides of your jobs."

This illustration is perhaps obvious, but it shows how objectives, which spring from many different sources, are translated into programs. The counseling program in its community resources phase, which resulted from the principal's taking some lines of direction, was now on a more educationally sound basis than it would have been otherwise.

A Climate for Learning

Even if purposeful activity is designed, however, objectives cannot be fulfilled unless there is a climate conducive for learning. An essential compo-

ment of this climate is orderliness. Often creativity is stressed to such an extent that order and predictability are ignored. Wherever purposeful activity takes place, however, it is in an orderly and predictable atmosphere. People are doing what they are equipped to accomplish, and they are at their places during predictable periods of time. Essential materials are available when they are needed. Supervisory personnel who know the operation well enough to lend direction and control are available. Although this description sounds like that of a production line, it is nonetheless appropriate to a school.

Time Perspective

Many problems in effective pupil personnel administration are related to a time perspective. In the secondary school, this factor is of particular significance. The factual present and an often romanticized picture of the future are those aspects of time with which a student of secondary school age is most concerned. The past is often "old hat," and an orderly, planned march into the future is too slow a pace. Authoritarianism went out "with the revolution." The result of all this at times is bewildering and discouraging to adults and frustrating and bitter to students. Since education represents a blend of the past, present, and future, those in the field must be able to play back and forth across this time continuum with skill and insight. Moreover, they must have the even more complex ability to help those with whom they work do the same thing.

It is a rare principal, for instance, who does not spend some time with boys approaching sixteen years of age who "tap their feet" impatiently against the time of their withdrawal from school. Their behavior often includes truancy, insubordination, blatantly expressed boredom, or maddening inertia. School is just a "sentence to be served" until their release is legal. Talks by parents, teachers, or the principal to such boys about the importance of making the most of school time, even to strengthen salable skills, often seem to have little impact. In such cases, the understanding principal, either directly or through others, can elicit the cooperation of recent withdrawals, who are known to the group of "unbudgeables," and who have had some sobering experiences since leaving school. These know first-hand the handicaps of rushing precipitously into post-school experiences without adequate preparation. They are often most willing to relate the story in terms that break through the barriers. Thus, what the principal himself cannot do he can help others to do.

SETTING CONDITIONS

Looking at the history of mankind, we see that tremendous efforts have been directed toward learning more and more about the rules of nature. Widespread observation and the systematization of knowledge led to generalizations about how life, in many forms, seems to exist, thrive, and persist. In addition to having an insatiable curiosity about the world in which he lives, man has had an intense desire to change the status quo. Life became much more than an adaptation to existing conditions. Man learned to exert measures of control. If "natural laws" have not been countermanded in this process, at least man has learned how to live more productively and humanely, in conformity with these laws, than he would have otherwise. This has led to the development of an extremely complex society, but one that is infinitely more challenging than any before.

What we have learned in the wider area about environmental adaptation and control applies equally well to the climate for learning and growth that exists in the secondary school. To let this climate be static, to act as if we have not become more knowledgeable about the principle of the survival of the fittest, is to ignore some of mankind's most productive thinking.

Competition and Cooperation

An obvious tangent to this line of thinking deals with the place of competition and cooperative activity and the roles they should play in the secondary school in setting the climate for the learner. It is perhaps sufficient to say that both competition and cooperative activity, if they for the moment can be thought of as polar positions, are important components of our society. Rather constantly we have been refining each dimension and seeking to discover the best blend of the two. Competition, in its raw form, is often associated with the pristine strength of our culture and, as such, considered to be beyond the pale of critical analysis. Cooperation, at the same time, becomes fair game for criticism, a collectivistic "red herring" tossed skillfully across the trail.

As an interpreter and student of our culture, the administrator has an obligation to help establish a climate for learning in the secondary school that reflects what we have learned about competition and cooperative activity in their relationship to a democratic society. The individual, with his rights and responsibilities, is at the heart of a democratic society. To establish competition circumscribed in its operation, which stacks the

cards against him, is to forswear the democratic tradition. The individual does best, and society profits as well, when sensitive competitive limits have been established.

From a point of view of the secondary school program, the limits of competition and cooperation become manifest through group and individual learning experiences, which have been designed to serve various ability and interest factors. This is not to suggest that Alice-in-Wonderland races, where everyone is a winner and where all get a prize, be run in the secondary school. Each individual needs to learn to cope realistically with failure as well as with success. Instead, there must be meaning in as many of the experiences as possible. If the secondary school curriculum, with its traditional rules for success and failure, remains virtually unaltered there will be form without meaning for many concerned.

Student Needs

One of the most delightful of excursions into educational satire is Harold Benjamin's *The Sabre-Toothed Curriculum*.¹ One recalls the passage where the elders of the tribe, concerned with revising the curriculum, beat off the youth perforce because they had the effrontery to come forth to suggest some of their own needs for learning experiences. We do not suggest that modern day elders ride the pendulum to the other end of the arc and abdicate their role as determiners of the curriculum. It is the rare person indeed who is sufficiently omniscient to know all of his own needs. However, the individual, throughout his entire life, is placed in a position of making some critical choices about the fulfillment of these needs whether he is conscious of them or not. When the needs of youth are translated into program, and there is conscious effort directed to understanding and coping with the often complex problems of need-fulfillment, a secondary school has laid two solid cornerstones toward the accomplishment of its basic tasks.

NEEDS IN BEHAVIORAL TERMS. In Chapters 2 and 5, the work of various commissions, as they have looked at the job of articulating the goals of education, were discussed. Of particular significance, among recent efforts, is that of French and his associates.² The behavioral goals discussed are particularly relevant to the secondary school administrator. Because they

¹ McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939.

² Will French, J. Dan Hull, and B. L. Dodds, *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1957)

are translated into behavioral terms, the goals are more amenable to measurement.

Another particularly helpful work of recent vintage is that of Jean Marani.³ Relying heavily on data supplied by junior and senior high school students, and comparing it with information provided by parents, teachers, and a group of social scientists, she isolated problems appropriate to the general education of these youth in the following areas:

1. Self-Understanding.
2. Healthful Living.
3. Home and Family Living.
4. Personal-Social Relations.
5. Education and School Living.
6. Vocational Preparation.
7. Living in the Community.
8. Democratic Government.
9. Economic Understanding.
10. Relationships with Minority Groups.
11. Finding Values by Which to Live.

To make educational capital of the teenager's propensity to magnify the importance of the here-and-now, the secondary school administrator needs to be familiar with those areas of development that have immediacy. From this base he can work productively with those whose contacts with students are more direct than his own—teachers, counselors, and parents.

ROLE OF EDUCATION. The job of evaluation is also vital in the process of setting conditions for the development of individual and group skills. Measurement and comparison are strong forces in our society. If goals based on a sensitive interpretation of needs are to be reached, meaningful benchmarks to measure progress must be utilized. Plans developed to measure progress in course areas may be totally inappropriate to indicate how the individual is doing in terms of moving toward another type of goal. Even in course areas, there are thousands of students who have little concept of what individual progress in a skill area they have made. One of the most rewarding leadership activities is the development of a plan of measurement and appraisal that makes sense to pupils, teachers, and parents alike. Although there is sufficient challenge to do this job locally,

³ Jean Victoria Marani, "A Technique for Determining Problem Areas for General Education in the Secondary School," unpublished doctoral dissertation (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1958).

the plan must be understandable outside the system, too, for students transfer from city to city, and transcripts of credits go to colleges and universities.

Program Adaptation

Another important area of leadership is that of making school-by-school adaptations of the program that reflects the needs of the community. More and more autonomy has been granted to the individual school, even the one that is part of a large school system, to develop a program geared to the needs of its attendance district. It is primarily the principal's duty to see that the responsibility accompanying this autonomy is discharged.

To do this, the principal must know the community as a composite and also in its component parts. Although his picture may be snapped at a given point in time, the process must be repeated with sufficient frequency for him to detect changes that should be reflected in program revision. Properly organized, this task is not so difficult as might be imagined. Much of the groundwork can be done by social studies classes. Data are available from many sources: United States government bureaus, local chambers of commerce, and state government departments, to mention but a few of these. Recent sociological research is most helpful concerning school-related data.⁴ The techniques developed in this research are relatively easy to adapt to local situations and to use by those who have reasonable facility with the research processes. Students, themselves, can provide some of the information that is needed to hold a finger to the pulse of the curriculum. Follow-up studies of graduates yield data of real value. There are many ways in which information can be gathered and analyzed. At almost any given time, a staff member in today's secondary schools is pursuing a graduate program. Such a follow-up study makes an excellent master's research project. Then, if a school has access to machine-processing of data, it is quite simple to have a periodic analysis of the program as seen by recent graduates, graduates of the past ten or twelve years, or drop-outs. Data provided from these sources, however, should represent only one part of the information to be considered in contemplating program changes.

⁴ See for example, Robert P. Bullock, *School-Community Attitude Analysis for Educational Administrators*, School-Community Development Study Monograph Series No. 7 (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Press, 1959); and Christen T. Jonassen, *The Measurement of Community Dimensions and Elements* (Columbus, Ohio: Center for Educational Administration, The Ohio State University, 1959).

DEVELOPMENT OF RESPONSIBILITY

In spite of the continued and increasing emphasis on the responsibility of the secondary school to provide optimum conditions for the acquisition of skills, the school has an equally definite responsibility for assisting its students to meet the moral and ethical requirements for productive, happy living in our society. No artificial partitioning of responsibility ever quite seems to be effective, for education takes place so constantly and is so inter-related that segmentation is all but eliminated. Since a primary function of the school is to equip young citizens for critical thinking, it would be foolish indeed to rule out a consideration of all value questions because they more appropriately are in the province of the church or the home. An understanding of and a respect for self, as well as for others, is vital to the humane, intelligent person.

As he focuses on his responsibilities in the pupil personnel area, then, the secondary school administrator needs to see clearly how the students are progressing in the realm of continued development of a sense of responsibility. If students seem to act as if they are not aware of the importance of being responsible for their actions, part of the cause may lie in a failure of the school to communicate successfully how important being responsible is. Another explanation may exist in our cultural mythology, which perpetuates the "turning over a new leaf" philosophy. It seems to be a natural phenomenon for adults to reconstruct their own teenage years out of "devils" blocks. The truth of the matter is that in most cases those who are responsible today, those whose moral and spiritual concepts are rather soundly anchored, are those whose behavior and values were very much the same earlier. The concept of the early development of central tendencies is probably truer than we would like to believe. If this thesis is reasonably accurate, the day-by-day living done by students throughout their school years assumes real importance.

How can the administrator help students to recognize that this is so? One answer lies in finding ways to communicate this truth along those channels that flow directly into the students' central concerns. Few students, for example, know the extent to which requests are made for their records after they leave school. Business and military agents, personnel from colleges and universities, law enforcement officers, all direct a stream of inquiries to the secondary school about former enrollees who now are in one need or another of character references. With the degree of turnover that exists in many secondary schools, the permanent school record

becomes the only, or at least the major, source of information about a student. A job opportunity, entrance to a college or university, a chance to be promoted to a position that has some bearing on national security, all these may hang on what the record says.

Opportunities for Responsible Action

Acquiring a sense of responsibility, or further buttressing an existing one, does not result solely from exhortation or even from more effective methods of communication. Much of it comes from being given the opportunity to take responsible action under sound guidance. How many students in a school have opportunities to take responsible actions in diversified ways which make real sense to them and in which there are built-in mechanisms for evaluative help? Is student assistance solicited in planning and evaluating learning experiences in the classroom? Are students given some measure of responsibility in determining and enforcing the rules by which they live? Do students, at times, introduce speakers at school assemblies? Are banquets and other school functions sometimes planned and executed by students? A belief that a sense of individual and group responsibility is important often comes with the action and with its concomitant learnings.

Program of Discipline

Examine almost any list of discussion topics where secondary school administrators gather, and the hardy perennials are those dealing with discipline. Although these problems may be restated to reflect particular exigencies of the changing times, they are essentially old wine in new bottles. This is because an absolute requirement for success as a secondary school administrator is the development and implementation of a program of discipline.

RATIONALE FOR AUTHORITY. Even the most rebellious would not choose to live in circumstances where authority played no part. A sensitively developed and operated system of authority provides, in our society, a salutary freedom for the purposeful growth of the individual and those groups of which he is a member. Although a mechanism for enforcement is sometimes considered to be the most important component of a system of control, we believe that the single most important factor is the development of an understanding about the rational basis of such a system.

Teenagers sometimes rebel against authority because they feel that those who exercise it do so because of ill-will towards them. The secondary

school administrator must communicate to these students the fact that teachers and administrators have an obligation, by law, to control certain behaviors. Truancy, for example, is forbidden by statute, and when regulatory action is taken by school personnel regarding it, that enforcement is prescribed by law, not by personal whim. In addition to this area of operation, the principal is compelled to enforce those policies that have been established by the board of education. Straightforward communication about the nature of this responsibility is important.

To stop at this point would be an error, for it would place the principal in the role of a legalist who might find it convenient to make the legislature or the board the villain in the piece. It also places the principal in the position of operating only in prescribed areas, unable to take initiatory action in the modification or new development of needed policy.

Developing a recognition of the need for authority, when viewed from its external side, is relatively easy. Most secondary school students would conform, within manageable limits, if this were the only emphasis. The real educative challenge lies, however, in the building up of an understanding that the internal imposition of controls by the individual is the characteristic of a productively disciplined person. In many areas central to human happiness, externally-applied controls drop off shortly after students finish secondary school. Decisions relative to job performance, marriage, management of money and time, and a host of other areas now become matters of individual decision. Unless there are internal controls, regulated by sound problem recognition and solution mechanisms, mismanagement and unhappiness result. The school environment is the best place for students to learn this lesson, for it can be done there in ways that may at times smart but seldom scar.

SHARED POLICY DEVELOPMENT. Even those who see most clearly the necessity for authority need to experience its operation, for it is possible to accept a philosophical position long before one is able to live by it operationally. The strength of the laws of a democratic society is the fact that each citizen has a direct or indirect right to shape the rules by which he lives. This lesson should not be ignored by the secondary school administrator, for he can enforce a program of discipline much easier if it has been compounded by responsible, shared effort than he can if it developed by his unilateral action. A note of caution is necessary at this point, however, for the phrase "shared responsibility" often assumes that the individual fades away. A principal, with his legally constituted status leadership role,

cannot do this. Even if he could, his leadership would suffer. The principal must be a direct participant in the process of developing discipline policies. His expertness, however, does not lie in knowing the answers; rather, his skill is in working with others, primarily the staff and the students, or representatives of these groups, to develop sensible ground rules by which to live. Another expertness he brings to this process is a knowledge of existing school laws, policies, an understanding of the positions of the teacher and the student, and an insight into the problems of implementation of any policy. As disciplinary policy is developed cooperatively, the administrator needs further to be cognizant of the fact that what is learned in the process needs to be communicated successfully if it is to accomplish its intended purpose. Staffs shift and student bodies come and go, so handbooks should be developed, and planned forums in home-rooms or classrooms or other guidance sessions need to occur if the program is to stay operationally alive.

ENFORCEMENT OF DISCIPLINE. Many principals complain that an all-too-prevalent willingness to abdicate responsibility for enforcement of discipline exists on the part of the staff. Some staff members may mistakenly feel that this, really, is how the principal should earn his money, thus leaving them free to teach. In most secondary schools, however, it is neither realistic or desirable to see the principal in the role of disciplinarian to this extent. Unimaginative indeed is the classroom teacher who has to turn over every disciplinary case to the principal. Worse yet, this type of action robs the school of its opportunity to deal productively with the student in the development of internal controls.

If policies regarding discipline are developed together by the administrator and staff of a secondary school, at the same time there should be consideration of the responsibilities for their enforcement. Some situations emerge that clearly should be handled by the principal or his assistant. Each teacher, for example, should not have the right to mete out disciplinary dismissals from school. Likewise, stealing and immoral conduct should be dealt with by the principal. The important point, however, is to agree on sensible rules and a procedure that attaches responsibility to several persons for their enforcement.

It is important, too, that students be involved. One of the most important reasons for this is to secure their cooperation in the enforcement of the policy. Teenagers often have a mistaken notion that their code requires a "hear no evil, see no evil, speak no evil" behavior. In some cases,

this attitude may result from a fear of punitive action taken by the gang, and it becomes very important to break down the threat of this behavior.

When secondary school students believe that the rules by which they live are fair, and in part of their own making, they much more willingly play a part in their enforcement. Indignation develops against those whose reprehensible behavior would result in the innocent's having to pay part of the price, and the resulting moral persuasion can exert a powerful influence.

Facilities for Control

The secondary school administrator needs to have a sense of awareness about the implementation aspects of policy. Implementation of policies pertaining to discipline can begin with a realistic assessment of the facilities for control, which may include both people and physical conditions.

For example, stealing often crops out in the physical education locker rooms or in the corridors where student lockers are located. Part of the explanation for the problem may exist in the fact that the lockers are not in good repair. A further explanation may be that students are careless and either do not lock their lockers or do so in such a way that combination locks come open by turning them back to the last number in the combination. A modifying, then, of the problem of stealing often can occur when the principal develops a plan with the custodian for keeping lockers in good repair and works through good communication approaches to increase student responsibility for keeping lockers locked. The student handbook can include rules for keeping opportunities for stealing to a minimum. It can be recommended, for instance, that students not bring large amounts of money or expensive watches and pens to school.

All disciplinary problems cannot be handled simply, by such means as were illustrated in the previous example. Many problems, however, can be reduced through good organization and careful attention to the contributing factors. A beginning point, then, with any problem of this nature should be a check of the physical conditions surrounding that problem.

WHERE CONTROLS ARE NEEDED. Another thing that an administrator can do is to isolate those problem areas where controls are needed. In almost any secondary school the list might include truancy, insubordination, tardiness, stealing, defacing school property, smoking, immorality, and the like. In any given list, some problems are obviously much more

crucial than others. These should be dealt with first and policies should be established in reference to them. In some cases it is necessary to turn to sources outside the school as these policies are considered. This is true if enforcement and/or therapy factors are to be involved. Thus, checking with police and court officials is important to develop cooperative, mutually agreed-upon action. In many communities, too, there are individuals and agencies with specialized services for control and therapy. Cooperative relationships between these agencies and the school often prevent duplicated or contradictory effort. Too, many of the more severe disciplinary matters have public relations implications affecting the entire school system and not merely the building in which they occur. It is wise, therefore, for the principal to counsel with the superintendent or his assistant about policies that have system-wide implications. In many respects, it is well to have board of education endorsement of policies and regulations pertaining to discipline.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SCHOOL. Part of the problem of a realistic assessment of facilities for control hinges on the philosophy of the school toward its responsibilities in the behavioral areas and on the personnel available for specialized tasks. If the reconstruction of behavior is regarded as an important responsibility, and if the services of capable psychologists and counselors are available, procedures regarding disciplinary cases often can be planned one way. If teachers and administrators must rely on their own facilities, plans may need to take a different direction.

Irrespective of the facilities, in any attempt to help the individual, erring student to learn socially acceptable behavior, the principal has an obligation to see that group rights are respected. There may come times, for instance, when a decision must be made to remove the individual pupil from the school scene because the damage he does to the group outweighs the good that might accrue to him, as an individual, were his behavior to become redirected. These are difficult decisions to make, but they must be made. Teachers, administrators, and counselors need to do a time study occasionally to see how much effort they are directing toward how many students. An assessment of progress must be made, and attention directed to those things that have been neglected in the process. The student who is not a disciplinary problem, in the usual sense of the word, is entitled to his fair share of counseling time, too, and often he profits from it infinitely more than the recalcitrant student who may enjoy the attention that comes from being a perennial "office case."

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Responses of students to surveys about their school experiences frequently request more guidance facilities. Rugged individualists may deplore this situation as evidence that the schools are pampering today's youth to the extent that they no longer have self-reliance and the sense of adventure based on the confidence that comes from learning to stand on "one's two feet." Society is infinitely more complex currently than it was a relatively few years ago, and it is likely to become even more complex. Uncertainties today have a more disintegrating effect on personality, job selection in terms of an assessment of individual abilities and aspirations is more difficult, and competition is increasingly keen in such areas as admission to college, to mention but a few characteristics of present-day society. With increasing complexity of the problems confronting students and with mounting school enrollments that often demand that a teacher deal with two hundred or more students in a day, the need for specialists in psychological services and counseling is on the upswing.

There is increasing national and state recognition of this problem. Federal funds have been made available recently for the preparation of guidance specialists (through the National Defense Education Act of 1958). In state foundation programs, allowances are being made for adding these personnel to school staffs. Such actions represent a growing recognition of the expanding role of the school and of the complexity of the teaching-learning process.

In developing a sound program of guidance it is far better to lay a careful groundwork for its establishment than to rush headlong into it simply because funds are available or because it seems to be the thing to do. Programs developed in response to sound purposes that need to be met are always on a firmer basis than those set up precipitously and an *ex post facto* rationale for their existence developed.

Organizational Aspects of Guidance

There are several things the secondary school administrator can do to pave the way for a guidance program. Among the most productive of these is an exploration of possible need for the program with his staff. This can have many benefits, but chief among them will be a feeling on the part of the staff that a guidance program would be of a direct benefit to them and to their teaching. Without this feeling of need, and later demonstrated evidence that the need, at least in part, has been met, a guidance program

or almost any other program of a specialized, noninstructional nature encounters real difficulty. Again, such an exploration can result in a compilation of problem areas particularly amenable to guidance services. As this compilation is made, the administrator can add to the list those problems with which he deals or those that can be tabulated from office files.

Student participation should be sought as well. A student council can often be very helpful. Other ways exist, too, for getting this information. There are several problem inventories on the market. In classroom discussions, particularly social science classes, student opinions about their own problems and how the school might help in their solution can be gathered. Follow-up studies of recent graduates and drop-outs provide even further information. In laying the groundwork for a guidance program, many principals seek parent opinions in individual conferences and through more systematized channels such as the Parent Teachers Association or other advisory groups.

PINPOINTED DECISIONS. Although this process takes time, the preparatory steps are of sufficient importance to warrant the effort. The need is recognized by those who will become direct or indirect participants in the program that evolves as a result of the need. In addition, data are assembled that can be used to answer staffing and other organizational problems. It may be, for instance, that in its first year of operation a guidance program can be financed only to the extent of employing one certified counselor. From the data it can be determined where that person can operate most effectively. The data might indicate that the first person should be employed at the junior, rather than the senior, high school level. Also, an analysis of the problems might indicate that it would be advisable to assign the guidance person to the area of course selection as the major emphasis during the first year.

Once the need has been determined and a decision made to establish a guidance program, qualified personnel must be found for the position. Often a teacher who has had a knack for working well with the students is selected. If this is done, the principal should recommend that the teacher take the specialized training required of a guidance counselor.

ESTABLISHMENT OF OPTIMUM WORKING CONDITIONS. The next step is to organize so that the counselor has a chance of working effectively. Although organizational decisions should not be made solely by the principal, even if he is knowledgeable about guidance programs, he can designate a room where the counselor can work effectively and recommend a

OTHER ORGANIZATIONAL FEATURES

Often, when pupil personnel administration is mentioned, the aspects of it that first come to mind are those pertaining to record-keeping, such as pupil accounting, reporting, and permanent record cards. We have chosen to wait until now to discuss those and other organizational features, because we believe that they are best accomplished when the over-all purposes of pupil personnel administration are understood.

Functional Record System

The word "functional" describes a good record system. The recording of data appears to be such an anathema to a teaching staff that it is possible to envision a teachers' paradise as a place heated by bonfires of record forms. The objection stems primarily from two major conditions. Many forms seem to be neither adaptable nor terminal. Once adopted, they seem to be used forever. Rarely does anyone examine the question of their revision or demise. More importantly, the link between the record form and its direct contribution to the teaching-learning act seldom is a strong one.

REVISION OF EXISTING FORMS. Each secondary school administrator, whether experienced or new to the position, should take a systematic look at existing record forms. Some of these will apply specifically to the building he serves; others may be used on a system-wide basis. A beginning point might be those used exclusively at the secondary school level, because these, obviously, are the ones over which there is more immediate control. It is better, usually, if the principal does not conduct the analysis alone. Others, particularly those who are most involved in recording data and in using these forms, can see problems that might escape the notice of one person.

In this process of analysis, the principal can ask these kinds of questions: What is the purpose of this record form? Does it meet this purpose? Are any of the items obsolete? Who uses the information recorded on the form? What is involved in recording the requested information? Are auxiliary information sheets necessary? Could this form be discarded? Could it be combined with other forms? This kind of examination calls upon existing record cards to justify their existence and to remain current in terms of the objectives that require their use. In addition to the communications value of this process, responsibilities for sensible recording procedures and times for doing the job can be fixed.

BASIC RECORDS. No attempt is made, here, to discuss all record forms that might be used in today's secondary schools. Instead, we shall deal with a few that seem to be basic.

In terms of day-by-day use, attendance records always require careful attention. Compulsory attendance laws and the position of stewardship held by the school while the student is in its care require an efficient day-by-day, period-by-period system of pupil accounting. To facilitate the efficiency of this accounting, the school day might begin with period one rather than with the often characteristic home room period. This seems to provide a greater incentive for students to be on time; and when this is so less revisions need to be made in the daily attendance list. This also makes it possible for the attendance list to be duplicated and distributed to each member of the staff before the end of the first period. Then, each teacher throughout the day can check class attendance period-by-period and note discrepancies that should be checked by the person—often the principal or his assistant—who has attendance responsibilities. In this way, any truants can be detected within minutes of their infraction, if the truancy is of a period-by-period nature, as it often is.

In addition to the forms necessary for checking attendance, there should be a form that contains each pupil's schedule and data pertaining to both home and business address, and up-to-date telephone numbers for both parents or guardians. In addition, an emergency number where someone close to the student can be reached on most occasions should be listed. Physician and/or hospital preferences and appropriate telephone numbers should also be on this card, a copy of which should be in the office of those responsible for attendance and/or emergency checking.

Another major record form is that used to portray the developmental story of the student's progress through his customary twelve grades. This cumulative folder, if properly designed and utilized, can play a key communications role and be a source of meaningful data to the classroom teacher, the counselor, or the secondary school administrator. Poorly designed and improperly utilized, it can be one more recording chore. The contents of the cumulative record should be useful to the classroom teacher. In addition to the usual demographic data, this means probably that there should be space provided for test scores—intelligence, achievement, personality, interest, and aptitude—information about the health of the student, academic records, and further anecdotal information supplied by those who have worked with the student during the years. Communication problems are inherent in this record, though, and it is at this point that

a principal can make a significant contribution. In staff meetings or in teachers' handbooks the communications problem can be considered. For example, test data come in different forms. In some standardized instruments percentiles or grade placements are given, while in others an I.Q. score is derived. *These terms often need interpretation, and concrete examples should be developed to illustrate the relationship of the data to more effective teaching and learning.* Often, guidance personnel can most effectively do this interpretive work. Thus, common understandings are arrived at, and these can spur the teacher to work at interpreting the message contained in the cumulative record folder.

Another way in which the administrator can help is to keep these records accessible to the classroom teacher. Often records are not consulted because they are filed, by homerooms, in the principal's office. The inconvenience of finding the needed form and then of locating a place where the information can be studied presents too many obstacles. Developing an efficient library plan with check-out, delivery, and check-in features often increases the use made of these records manyfold.

The last record singled out for special discussion is the report of pupil progress. Needless to say, its most important characteristic is communicability. It must tell a message that is interpreted reasonably consistently by teachers, pupils, and parents. Irrespective of what marking system is used, the message to be conveyed by the "B," "Progress," "95," "3-Needs further improvement," or "Student is performing well for his ability level," should be understood by all who are affected by it. This may require staff meetings to hammer out policy by which reasonable consistency can be maintained, classroom discussion with students, consideration of the problem with adults at P.T.A. sessions, brochures for parents, or other comparable devices.

The principal needs to recognize that he has a central responsibility to work in ways that will effect the widest possible understanding of the evaluation system. Responsibility does not stop at the local level, however. With mobility such a pronounced feature of our society, it is necessary to develop a legend to accompany transcripts of records sent to other school systems. This will facilitate the work of the receiving school system, often in another state, which may have different requirements for graduation, assignment to special classes, and the like.

Progress in developing forms is dependent upon an attitude of looking for better ways. With the record-keeping aspect of education likely to become one of increasing magnitude, increased efficiency must accom-

pany this growth. Regardless of the size of school served by the principal, better ways of recording can be found that are adaptable to the unique problems of that school. Machine processes, by which duplicating, sorting, and tabulating can be done quickly and often very inexpensively, are being developed and improved each year. Scheduling that used to take *longs months of detailed hand work* in the larger secondary schools is beginning to be accomplished now in a matter of days. Efficiency, however, is not always a function of having the tools for the job. Good organization of available human resources still lies at the core. With a teaching staff motivated to supply data whose purpose clearly is understood, the data can be recorded and made accessible by office personnel adept in clerical skills. This combination, then, can go a long way toward the development of a really functional record system for the secondary school.

Programs for Exceptional Students

Each year brings additional understandings about the unique learning problems of the atypical student. These understandings increasingly have been translated into curriculum experiences and, as a consequence, programs for students with physical and mental problems have become widespread. In addition to developments in what is characteristically associated with the special education field, other programs are reflecting the broader concerns of society, as well as of professionals within the area of curriculum, *to do the best that possibly can be done for the individual learner*. As a result, there is mounting interest in such groups as the able student, the dull normal, and the student with special interest and aptitude in such fields as science or mathematics.

As this trend is likely to accelerate, there are special ramifications that should be singled out for the consideration of the secondary school administrator. First, special programs should exist when they can fulfill a recognized need that is consistent with the over-all purpose of the school and that meshes with the *philosophy of education subscribed to by that school*. Secondly, special programs should be set up to follow certain criteria. If partial subsidy is provided by state or federal sources, certain basic conditions must be met, at least at the outset. Not all programs are so guided, however. When programs arise to meet a local need and when *they are financed primarily by local funds*, external criteria are not always available. Helping to determine the standards, then, becomes a responsibility of the administrator.

One particular aspect seems especially appropriate to discuss. Often considerable pressure will mount to establish special programs, such as those for the able student. An administrator might be tempted to get such a program on the books as soon as possible, to reduce the pressure. To do this hastily, without due regard for program and staffing implications, can cause a chain reaction of problems that is even more difficult to contend with than the original pressure.

Since exceptional students do not always exist in sufficient numbers in one secondary school to justify the establishment of a special class for them, other organizational methods need to be explored to provide for them. Many administrators have planned programs on a regional basis, and have solved the financial, transportation, and other problems of such a cooperative activity. In other cases, specialists have been employed by several cooperating districts, and these personnel travel from school to school.

Extracurriculum Activities

The extracurriculum or cocurriculum program plays a major role in most secondary schools. Interscholastic athletics, intramural activities, student publications, interest groups, almost infinite in number, and dramatics are but a few of its components. This program contains a host of possibilities for the secondary school, and concomitantly creates many problems for the administrator. As is the case with many of the specific components of secondary school administration, this book makes no effort to deal exhaustively with the extracurriculum program. Indeed, this field has become so complex that to do so would require a volume in itself. Instead, we wish to discuss only a few principles that may be helpful administrative guides.

To begin with, the extracurriculum program needs a rationale for its existence. What needs can be met with such a program? Would purposes that are consistent with the philosophy of education to which this school subscribes be fulfilled by establishing an extracurriculum program? What guiding policy should be developed to give direction to the operation of such a program? Can the program be staffed, financed, and housed? These are but some of the questions an administrator must raise and consider with those who will be affected by the program.

Balance must be considered in an extracurriculum program. It can easily fall prey to the "fads and frills" charge. More easily, one phase of the program—athletics is the most frequent example—can get out of

hand, especially in those places where the purposes and policies questions have not been carefully considered. To prevent either contingency, the secondary school administrator needs to play a key role in working toward a school and community perspective for the extracurriculum program.

Need for Coordination

With the increasing size and complexity of the secondary schools, the broad areas of operation traditionally associated with the pupil personnel field and the thousands of detailed operations that occur in these areas during the year make apparent the need for coordination. Without careful planning and clear communication, the sheer weight of pupil personnel problems can topple a school into chaos. As secondary schools continue to grow, the responsibilities for coordinated activity must be seen clearly and personnel must be found to assume them. How these responsibilities will be defined and shared will vary from school to school. In some cases, an assistant or vice principal may be appointed to direct pupil personnel services. In others, a full or part-time attendance person may be named. A counselor or a counseling staff may take several of these responsibilities in yet other instances. In smaller secondary schools, the principal, through careful planning of his own time, may perform the major share of coordinating the pupil personnel program. It is becoming increasingly apparent that he needs assistance to do both this and other aspects of his work. One source of help is frequently the teaching staff. A staff member often can be assigned one or more periods of the day for specified responsibility in such areas as, for example, pupil attendance.

COMMUNICATION

It would be remiss to deal, even broadly, with the administration of pupil personnel and not to single out for special mention the important role of communications. Much has been written about the "captive audience" characteristic of pupils in the public schools and about the somewhat rigid *organizational nature of the one-way lecture approaches to the curriculum* of many secondary schools. Nothing is to be gained here by adding but one more peroration on these topics. What needs to be said is that pupil morale will often vary directly with the degree to which students feel that they have ways by which their voice can be heard. This, aside from the therapeutic value that comes from being able to talk, will be effective only

if there is a means of implementing some of the resulting suggestions. Unless this happens, the school is merely "shadow-boxing" with involvement.

In many secondary schools, the student council is an effective device for communication as well as policy-making purposes. With sound guidance by a faculty sponsor, its values can be numerous. As is true of any organization, it must work from a base of stated purposes that are clearly understood by faculty and student body alike.

The school newspaper is another obvious vehicle of communication, and with clearly stated and understood purposes and policy developed cooperatively by students and the professional staff, one more effective channel is open.

The list could be extended to include other of the more familiar and systematized communications opportunities that exist in secondary schools. Although the form is important in this communication matter, however, it is the substance that really matters. That substance is the general tone among the students about the extent to which the individual pupil and his opinions and concerns is respected and valued. To promote this atmosphere, all must be involved in a never-ending process. The major purpose of having open channels of communication in the schools is to expedite opportunities to learn about and to take responsible action. We constantly learn more about the complexities of teaching responsible action, but because it is difficult and because the schools often feel that counterforces are exerting tremendous impact, the job should not be forsaken. Instead, we need to do a better job of capitalizing on those things we know. We know, for example, that effective oral communication requires good listening as well as good speaking, that mutual respect must exist between two communicants, that hearing and doing must have a recognizable relationship, and that in our culture people have become masters in the art of circumventing authoritarianism. Applying these and other lessons, in sensible ways, administrators and teaching personnel in the secondary schools will develop the clear channels of communication that can do so much to facilitate the learning and the doing of responsible action.

CONCLUSION

Because secondary school students must sense that a productive atmosphere for learning exists, administrative effort in the area of pupil person-

nel assumes key importance. Having a basic understanding of the teenage youngster in his complex environment and a knowledge of the objectives of secondary school education, the imaginative administrator constantly will seek better ways of implementing them into action programs. In this effort he enlists the assistance of students, teachers, parent and nonparent groups, and other resource specialists.

A well-understood program of discipline, which combines both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, is necessary for purposeful activity. Guidance activities and services add to the potential of the secondary school for individual and group development.

The record-keeping aspects of pupil personnel must be functional and contribute directly to the ongoing program of the school. Planning and coordination are of vital importance in this administrative area. Finally, open channels of communication are the key component of any successful pupil personnel activity.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. List the major behavioral problems in the school where you currently are employed.
 - a. From your knowledge of motivation, what are the needs, apparently not being fulfilled through socially acceptable channels, that account for these problems?
 - b. How could the number and complexity of these problems be reduced?
2. Consult a source, such as that developed by the sociologist, Robert P. Bullock, in the school-community attitude analysis field.
 - a. What components of the scales suggested in the document seem particularly appropriate to the community in which you work?
 - b. What other information, not contained in the scales, would be needed for pupil personnel purposes? Why?
 - c. How would you, as a secondary school administrator, analyze and use data from these attitude scales?
3. From your experience with testing, discuss the uses of standardized tests.
 - a. How should students be motivated to do their best work when taking standardized tests?
 - b. What are the advantages and disadvantages of using standardized tests?

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chapter 8

MANAGEMENT

THE MANAGEMENT OF THE SCHOOL is a task in which many principals are extremely competent and about which many principals develop deep-seated guilt complexes. For rather apparent reasons, a principal can feel "professional" when he discusses curriculum or student personnel services, but he feels "commercial" when he talks about the proper maintenance of the gymnasium floor. Another factor that may lead to professional guilt feelings is that superintendents are often considered to be overly concerned with bonds, buses, and budget, and so principals feel called upon to underplay the "three B's" and stress the C's of curriculum, classes, and certified personnel. Unfortunately, a total underplay is not possible and the principal finds himself guilty of the same sins as those charged to the superintendent. Finally, textbooks and professional journals constantly stress the fact that the principal is an instructional leader. "Is it proper," the principal asks himself, "for a real instructional leader to spend time in supply management?" And the answer to this question is a loud, "No!"

Nevertheless, school management is a legitimate task area assigned to the principal, and proper school management is a necessary part of the development of a good instructional program. The principal should be able to view his management task in proper perspective and not feel guilty as he devotes time to this important part of his job as an educational administrator.

AN OVER-ALL VIEW OF THE TASK AREA

The task area of management in secondary school administration includes school plant management, school business management, school office management, and the principal's problems with respect to the school transportation program and the school cafeteria. Each of these phases of the management task area has instructional implications. Several involve either the direct or indirect control of fairly large sums of money. Each phase requires a systematic approach, geared to the size and complexity of the particular school.

The management task area is probably the task area most conducive to the development of routine approaches. Routine, however, should be subject to periodic appraisal and overhaul. The suggestions presented here provide a starting point for the principal as he meets management problems in his own situation. It is his job to adapt, to adjust, to modify these suggestions and to check their effectiveness as he attacks the task area of management in his secondary school.

SCHOOL PLANT MANAGEMENT

The school plant is defined as the buildings, grounds, and equipment of a school. Although estimates vary, in 1961 at least twenty-five to thirty billion dollars was invested in school plants for public elementary and secondary schools in the United States. The secondary school principal often administers the most imposing structure in his town or city. He has important responsibilities in planning plant facilities, in managing the utilization of these facilities, in equipping the facilities, and in administering the maintenance and operation of these facilities. Each of these areas of responsibility will be considered in the sections to follow.

Planning New Facilities

The construction of a new secondary school is a major undertaking that will influence the secondary school program in a community for many years to come. Although plans for a school building should plainly grow from plans for a school program, this is often not the case. If the school plant is to be developed in terms of a school program, it is clear that the principal and his staff must understand what the school program is now and is to be in the predictable future.

ELEMENTS OF PLANNING. The specific elements that must be considered in planning a new secondary school include subject-matter courses to be taught, organization of these courses for teaching (i.e., the development of core programs or the integration of certain subject-matter areas into single courses), teaching methodology, including a consideration of supplies and equipment and their storage, and class size in various subject-matter areas. In addition to these elements, which are closely related to curriculum, school planning requires a consideration of such factors as population projections, including both numbers and location, and site selection, including such things as amount of space, location with relation to industry and highways, and room for future growth.

In most school systems, the secondary school principal is less directly involved in population and site studies than he is in the consideration of the school program phase of planning. Certainly the enrollment data for which he is responsible will be considered in developing population projections and his judgment concerning certain site possibilities will be sought, but his key role is in educational planning.

EDUCATIONAL SPECIFICATIONS. Educational planning for a new secondary school results in what are known as educational specifications. These educational specifications become the basis for developing architectural plans and specifications for the building. Architects often complain that school people do not provide them with well-prepared educational specifications, which make possible sound school design based on sound educational planning. In all fairness, it should be reported that educators complain that architects do not want and do not know how to use educational specifications. Be that as it may, the development of educational specifications through educational planning is an essential activity in planning new school facilities and one in which principals should be involved.

In an excellent discussion of educational planning for school facilities, Herrick and others describe the essential characteristics of good planning.¹ Among other things, these authors stress certain features that characterize good quality educational planning. Included among these are requirements that all activities to be housed in the building be considered, that economy in terms of educational efficiency be promoted, that the plans be written in such a way as to be most helpful to the architect, that educational planning be distinguished clearly from architectural

¹ John H. Herrick et al. *From School Program to School Plant* (New York: Henry Holt & Company, Inc., 1956), pp. 104-132.

planning, that it be based on sound procedures, and that it promote proper use of the new building.²

Educational specifications need to include both quantitative and qualitative aspects. It is necessary to determine the number of students who will need to use various kinds of space (teaching stations, cafeteria, library, and so forth) and the number of periods each day that various kinds of spaces will be in use. In addition to these quantitative aspects, various qualitative matters, such as special requirements for lighting, work space, display space, heating and ventilating, and grouping of facilities in a single part of the building, need to be considered.

QUANTITATIVE REQUIREMENTS. A formula is helpful in dealing with quantitative requirements. The basic formula for calculating the required number of teaching stations of any one kind in a secondary school is as follows:

$$\text{Number of teaching stations} = \frac{\text{Number enrolled in subject}}{\text{Desired average class size in subject}} \times \frac{\text{Number of periods per week in subject}}{\text{Number of periods per week that each teaching station can be used}^3}$$

Unless separate subjects can use the same kind of teaching station, separate calculations are necessary for each subject. Class enrollments should be based on projections so that the new building can accommodate reasonable increases in enrollment if such increases are expected.

To illustrate the use of this formula, let us assume that the planners expect to have 500 freshmen in a school and that all freshmen will enroll for English I. Classes in English I meet five days per week and the desired class size is 30 students. The school will operate on a six-period day, but each teacher will teach five periods per day and have the use of his room for his nonteaching period. Inserting these facts into formula we find:

$$\text{Number of teaching stations} = \frac{500 \text{ (students)} \times 5 \text{ (periods per week)}}{30 \text{ (class size)} \times 25 \text{ (room available for teaching 5 periods per day for 5 days per week)}}$$

$$\text{Number of teaching stations} = \frac{2500}{750} = 3.3$$

² *Ibid.*, pp. 106-110.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 115.

We find that we will need 3.3 teaching stations for English 1. Recognizing the difficulty of building three-tenths of a classroom, we will indicate the need for four such teaching stations in our plans. Inasmuch as 100 per cent utilization of teaching stations in a high school is not realistic, the additional seven-tenths of a classroom provides some margin for less than full utilization. This type of calculation would be continued for all subject areas until a complete list of teaching stations needed was developed.

It is apparent that this formula is of little value until a number of program decisions have been made. Thus, the instructional leadership role of the principal in working with his staff to develop educational program plans needs to be exercised as an integral part of planning new school facilities.

In addition to determining the need for teaching stations, quantitative requirements for nonclassroom facilities for pupils, administrative spaces, staff spaces, custodial and service facilities, and spaces for public use need to be developed. Here, again, the number and size of such spaces will depend upon a careful description of the activities that will go on in these spaces. Such matters as the activity program, the guidance program, and the community-use program will be basic to quantitative decisions about space requirements.

AN EXAMPLE. An excellent example of educational specifications for school buildings is a set recently developed by the Parma, Ohio, schools.⁴ The plan begins with an introductory statement setting forth some of the current challenges to American education. The educational program in Parma secondary schools is then briefly presented. Following this are general discussions of enrollment, site, design, and materials. In discussing design and materials, the plan does not dictate to the architect, but rather indicates the general effect desired.

After these introductory sections, a listing of facilities is presented. This list is divided into the following general categories: administration, instruction and related student services, maintenance areas, and outside areas. Under each category, types of rooms and number of each are listed. The remainder of the report provides detailed descriptions of the facilities listed.

The discussion of the classrooms for art education is reported in full below:

⁴ Educational Requirements for the New Senior High School, Board of Education, Parma, Ohio, City School District, 1959, mimeographed.

Three Art rooms should be provided in the new school. These rooms, if at all possible, should be located so that they will have north light. The size of the rooms should be somewhat larger than the standard classroom and should provide for a great deal of storage and workbench space. One of the Art rooms should be provided with an area for ceramics work, which will mean the installation of a minimum of 3 kilns and bins for the storage of clay and other materials used in ceramics. The orientation of the Art rooms to the rest of the building should be such that they are close to the auditorium and possibly one of the auditorium work rooms might double as a studio room for the Art Department. It would also be most helpful if the Art Department were located near the Vocational Department so that some of the heavy work could actually be done in the shops.

The Architect should give considerable study to the design of the entry ways into the various Art rooms. It would appear that some attempt might be made to provide free vision from corridor or lobby locations into exhibit areas of the Art Department.⁵

Although this statement is short and simple, it obviously reflects educational planning. A later specification referring to equipment gives more insight into the activities that will make up the art program in this school. It should be noted that the authors of this statement do not pretend to be architects. They present certain needs and assume that the architect will meet them through his own professional skill.

CONTINUOUS PLANNING. Once the educational specifications have been developed, architectural planning begins. It should not be assumed that architects will not be consulted during the preparation of educational specifications nor that educators will be ignored as the architects interpret these specifications. The two stages of planning are, however, quite distinct. Once drawings have been prepared, educators and architects need to discuss the ways in which the architectural plans meet the educational demands. Here, again, the principal should play a key role as a constructive critic.

THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE. Planning a new secondary school involves at least four stages: (1) clarification of the program and related activities that are to take place in the new building, (2) conversion of this information into a set of educational specifications, (3) conversion of the educational specifications into architectural plans, and (4) analysis of architectural plans to ascertain the degree to which they meet the educational

⁵ Ibid., pp. 22-23.

specifications. The faculty of the school and others in the community should contribute in each of these steps. The development of the proposed program should include appropriate involvement of teachers, students, and lay citizens under the leadership of the principal. The principal should play a major role in translating program into educational specifications. Finally, the principal should be an active member of the group of educators who work with the architects as architectural plans are developed and analyzed. If a new plant is to meet the needs of an educational program, the principal should be in the forefront in the planning operation. Although many matters of finance and contracts may be decided in central administrative offices, educational planning will be a major responsibility of the secondary school principal.

Utilizing the School Plant

An effectively planned school plant should facilitate a planned educational program. Using the plant for educational purposes, however, requires careful direction, or much of its effectiveness can be lost. In addition, many secondary school principals will find themselves operating in outmoded or poorly planned buildings. In these cases, effective utilization is a greater problem than in an educationally sound building.

Utilization includes several factors. First, there is the quantitative problem of assuring that each room of the building is used somewhere near its capacity. Although there may be times when a principal has more room than he needs, it is his function to ensure that some spaces are not overcrowded while others sit idle. Coupled with this quantitative problem is the question of the educational effectiveness of the use of school plant facilities. Here, again, the principal must ensure that space is well used and that space assignments reflect careful considerations of the best educational use of each available space.

QUANTITATIVE ASPECTS. In a consideration of utilization in terms of quantitative aspects, two types of measures are needed. The first is the extent to which rooms and other spaces are used; the second, the extent to which working stations (seats, laboratory spaces, table spaces, and so forth) in each room are used. Utilization is normally calculated as a percentage. For example, if a school operates on a six-period day for five days a week, maximum utilization of any room for the regular school program would be thirty periods per week. If a room were used four periods a day for three days a week and five periods a day the remaining days, that room

would be used twenty-two periods per week and its room utilization would be about 73 per cent. If this same room had thirty pupil stations, its total capacity during the thirty-period week would be nine hundred pupils. If the average class size during the twenty-two periods the room is in use is twenty-five, the room is actually accommodating five hundred and fifty pupils. Accordingly, its pupil station utilization is about 61 per cent.

It is apparent to any person with secondary school teaching experience that these percentage figures need careful interpretation. The first question revolves about a definition of a desirable degree of utilization. Certainly, 100 per cent utilization is neither possible nor desirable. Secondly, utilization should mean much more than use in the formal teaching situation. For example, when a teacher spends one period per day in his room preparing materials, conferring with students, or working with small groups of students on special problems, the percentage of utilization of that room will be less than it might be. However, the lower percentage figure probably reflects a higher quality of use than might be the case if the teacher did not have this period to use his room.

In addition, utilization figures do not usually account for use of rooms outside of regular school hours. Nor do such figures reflect maintenance time, which, particularly in the case of certain special rooms, may be quite necessary and time-consuming.

The quantitative aspects of space utilization are closely related to other administrative problems. For example, although space might permit small sections of certain advanced courses, the budget might not permit the employment of sufficient teachers to allow this. Undoubtedly, scheduling problems sometimes create larger or smaller sections of certain classes than might be desirable or than might lead to greater space utilization.

In short, the principal is responsible for seeing that the space assigned to him for the school program is utilized quantitatively to a degree that is defensible. Just because a room may be labeled "Sewing" and because sewing is taught only two periods a day does not mean that that room should sit idle while classes that might use that space meet in broom closets. Teachers sometimes develop an ownership complex toward their assigned spaces. The principal should ensure that such a complex does not lead to a waste of space. On the other hand, the principal himself should not develop a utilization complex in which he loses sight of the value of unassigned space. Although 100 per cent utilization is not a desirable goal, 100 per cent educational efficiency in the use of available space is both desirable and defensible.

QUALITATIVE ASPECTS. This last statement leads directly to a consideration of the qualitative aspects of utilization. Here several things need to be considered. In the first place, certain special rooms are designed to serve specialized needs. Such spaces as those for industrial arts, fine arts, business machines, or music are specially arranged and equipped to meet the needs of specific subject-matter areas. Ordinarily, careful consideration is given to program and enrollments when such rooms are planned. The secondary school principal should, however, periodically review the use of such rooms to insure that they are being used in terms of their planned purposes. For example, in one school in which considerable space was assigned and equipped for chemistry and physics laboratory use, the chemistry and physics teachers believed more in demonstrations than they did in student laboratory work. This meant that the laboratory space was little used, in spite of a serious space shortage in the high school. The alternatives were to convert the space to other uses or to convert the teachers to other methods. By astute administrative leadership, the latter alternative was followed successfully.

In addition to the effective use of special rooms, the principal must be concerned with what are usually called the academic classrooms. Teacher use of space for consultation, for working with small groups, or for study can be most effective. However, some principals in crowded schools have assigned such space usage only to have teachers spend their free periods in the cafeteria kitchen, in the faculty lounge, or elsewhere. An assessment of the effectiveness of the use of rooms is a responsibility of the principal.

Another qualitative aspect of utilization concerns the assignment of rooms to teachers. Too often, certain rooms considered desirable because of size or location are assigned in terms of a teacher's seniority rather than in terms of the teacher's job. For example, a teacher with twenty-five years of service, who teaches mathematics extremely well in what might be called a traditional manner, works in a room with fixed desks. He finds this very satisfactory, but would like to move to a larger, sunnier room, which happens to have tables and chairs. To accomplish this move, a young modernist is given the fixed-desk room. In this case, the fixtures do not match the teaching methods, and neither the teachers nor the rooms are used effectively. Actual educational needs rather than length of service should determine room assignment.

This discussion could be expanded to include consideration of cafeteria, gymnasium, office, or school nurse space. Space for storage or for

ment. The faculty needs to be involved in this planning, and a teacher should know when his turn can be expected. Certainly, emergency situations that cause some deviations from a long-range equipping plan will arise but the plan is still necessary. Without such a plan, the principal must often make decisions on the spur of the moment, when he is subject to pressure and his actions to suspicion.

If, for example, the commercial education group in the high school seems to other teachers to be always getting new equipment while 1927 maps hang in the social science rooms, the principal will face major problems. If, however, the faculty understands that the needs of the commercial area are to be met this year but that social science equipment is the "number one" priority for the next year, and if the faculty is aware of the reasoning behind this decision, the problem will be minimized. This is not to say that the social science teachers will be happy about the decision, but they will understand it and will not be suspicious and resentful.

If it is a rare school that has all the equipment it needs, it is an almost equally rare school that does not have unused, antiquated equipment hidden in various corners and closets. This equipment is usually using needed space and often has a cash value that can be used in purchasing new equipment. The principal needs to assure himself that equipment is being used. If it is not, he should either determine ways that it can be used or recommend that it be disposed of in the most profitable manner.

In summary, equipment should be purchased and used to meet educational or other school-related purposes. The utilization of equipment should be reviewed regularly by the principal in terms of the amount and quality of use. The principal and his staff should develop a long-range plan for replacing old equipment and for purchasing new equipment so that priorities can be assigned each year for making the best use of whatever equipment funds are available.

Maintenance and Operation of the School Plant

Maintenance refers to those "cyclic but intermittent services intended to keep the plant near its original state of preservation; in other words, repairs and replacements," while operation refers to "the normal routine daily services required to keep the school open and usable for its intended purposes."⁷ In the former category are included such things as painting, roof repairs, repairs to desks, and the like. In the latter category are such activi-

⁷ Henry H. Linn (ed.), *School Business Administration* (New York: The Ronald Press, 1956), p. 331.

ties as keeping the building warm or cool, daily sweeping or mopping, care of the grounds, and the like. Although such differences have some importance in financial accounting, they are of little concern to the principal. His concerns are that the school be ready for use each day and that sufficient care be taken of the plant so that it does not deteriorate as a useful school facility.

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR MAINTENANCE AND OPERATION. A secondary school will normally have one or more custodians assigned to it. These men will assume major responsibility for the operation of the plant and, in addition, may assume certain maintenance responsibilities. However, no team of custodians can keep a school building fit for use all by themselves. A major part of the responsibility for the maintenance and operation of a school must be borne by those who use the school. If custodians must devote a major portion of their time to picking up after careless students and teachers or to repairing damage caused by carelessness or maliciousness, the regular maintenance and operation program will suffer.

There are several ways that this problem can be attacked. First, waste paper and other miscellaneous trash tend to accumulate in a school building, and ample containers for such material should be provided. Secondly, an attractive building is generally treated with more respect than is a shabby building. This means that every possible step should be taken to brighten up the school. Halls should be attractively painted and decorated. The building should be as light as possible. Attractive pictures might well replace the usual reproduction of "Washington Crossing the Delaware." In short, a pleasant building calls for respect. Thirdly, and perhaps most important, is the general matter of morale. If the principal's staff personnel and pupil personnel procedures lead to a healthy school spirit, to a high morale, maintenance and operation problems decrease along with many other problems.

SCHOOL CUSTODIANS. Regardless of the general responsibilities related to maintenance and operation of the school plant, the school custodians will have specific duties in these fields. The principal should make certain that the custodians have a definite work schedule and that they know the duties they are to perform. The principal should protect the custodians from having too many people giving them directions. Too often, each teacher in a building feels that he has authority to request service directly from the custodians. This can lead only to trouble. The custodians' work schedule becomes impossible to maintain; custodians become frustrated

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and the quality of their work may suffer; and antagonisms develop between teachers and custodians, teachers and teachers, and custodians and custodians. The custodians should be directly responsible to the building principal or to some one designated by the principal.

The development of work schedules for custodians should be under the direction of the principal. Such schedules will need to conform to district policy, but custodians should feel that they are directly related to a school building rather than having a rather general relationship to the school system. *The same principles that apply to the development of assignments for teachers apply to the development of schedules for custodians.* Hours of work, overtime arrangements, and general work assignments should be included in the schedule.

Sometimes school custodians are called upon to make equipment repairs that should be done by specialists. The principal would do well to see that school district policy clarifies the type of repair work that custodians are to perform. Certainly, the average custodian should be able to make simple repairs, such as replacing washers in valves, replacing glass, or replacing window shades. However, the average custodian should not be expected to be a plumber, electrician, heating engineer, carpenter, painter, and interior decorator. In many instances, makeshift repairs by unqualified people lead to major repair expenses. Principals, teachers, and custodians should be aware of their limitations in maintenance work, and clear policy should guide the principal as he faces repair problems in his school.

MAINTENANCE SCHEDULES. The principal should assist the superintendent in the development of maintenance schedules. Too many school administrators do not concern themselves with maintenance until something falls apart. There should be regular schedules for painting, inspection of equipment, and other preventive maintenance measures. Teachers whose work involves the use of equipment should be encouraged to follow regular preventive maintenance schedules. The principal needs to know when equipment will be available for inspection and upkeep. Summer periods and vacation periods during the school year should be used for maintenance purposes. A school plant should be useful for fifty years or more, but such a period of usefulness cannot be realized without wise maintenance procedures.

Records and Reports

In administering the school plant, the principal will find it desirable to make use of certain records and reports. The following list is indicative of

the kinds of written materials that should be available for or made available by the principal as plant problems are met:

- Scale drawing of each floor of the school plant, indicating room numbers and type.
- Inventory of equipment, including current assignment status by room number.
- Enrollment data by room and subject for each period of the day.
- Custodians' work schedule.
- Maintenance schedule.
- School board policy relating to community use of school facilities and other school plant matters.
- Calendar of use of school facilities by both school and nonschool groups outside of regular school hours or, for example, in the case of an auditorium, during school hours.
- File of instruction manuals relating to various pieces of equipment in the building. This file should include guarantees unless these are filed with the central administration.
- List of equipment servicing agencies authorized by central administration to make necessary inspections or repairs of the equipment in the building.

In making judgments concerning the adequacy of existing plant and equipment, the principal will need reactions from staff members using these facilities. Because of wide differences in types of space and of equipment, a single form would probably not be acceptable for gathering such reactions. The principal should solicit regularly the opinions of his staff regarding ways in which plant and equipment are helping or hindering the program of the school. These opinions should be organized so that interpretation is possible. Then these organized opinions can become the basis for planning for future expenditures and for future space and equipment assignments.

SCHOOL FINANCE

In school finance, the role of the principal is that of director of a large-scale internal financial operation. The principal has at least three major responsibilities in this field. First, he has definite responsibilities in the preparation and administration of the school district budget. Secondly, he must be knowledgeable about the general area of school finance so that he can assist the citizens of his school community in understanding this field.

Finally, he is responsible for the management of the financial accounts within his school—the activities accounts, the athletic accounts, and the like.

The School District Budget

A school budget should be an educational plan expressed in dollars and cents. It should reflect an education program—teachers, books, laboratory equipment, and all the other aspects of such a program. This means that budget-making must be something more than dividing a pool of money in accordance with some mathematical formula. It means, as DeYoung stated years ago, that a budget should be balanced educationally as well as balanced technically.⁸

THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE. If the budget is to reflect a program, it is apparent that school principals will play important roles in budget-making. In Chapter 5 we discussed the instructional leadership role of the principal. The instructional plans developed in a school under the leadership of the principal will lead to the development of school budget plans. A superintendent should involve his principals early and regularly as budgets are prepared.

The principal is faced with several key questions as the budget is prepared. Usually close to 80 per cent of a school budget is for personal services of one kind or another. Around 70 per cent of the total budget is for teachers' salaries. In terms of educational planning, then, the principal will have to bring to budget sessions answers to questions such as the following:

How many teachers are needed because of:

Enrollment trends?

Class size trends?

Curriculum changes?

Addition of services?

What kinds of new teachers are needed:

Experienced teachers?

Beginning teachers?

Holders of advanced degrees?

What special personnel are needed:

Guidance workers?

⁸ Chris A. DeYoung, *Budgeting in Public Schools* (Garden City, N.Y., Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., 1936), pp. 14-15.

Health personnel?
Psychologists?

These are educational questions, but they also involve budget questions. Similar questions can readily be envisioned concerning instructional supplies, noncertified personnel, special services, and other areas.

SPECIFIC PROCEDURES. Because budget-making is a primary responsibility of the superintendent of schools, it is difficult to suggest to principals exact budget-making procedures that they should follow in the absence of knowledge of the plans of the superintendent. Assuming, however, that a superintendent does involve his principals in budget-making, several concrete ideas can be presented. If the budget year runs from July 1 through June 30—the most common pattern—the final budget is usually adopted early in June. Preparation of the budget for a specific year should begin around October. Principals should work with their teachers and other staff members at that time to develop educational plans and to determine educational needs. By late January, the principal should be able to provide the superintendent with a concrete educational plan for his school for the ensuing year. The superintendent and his principals will then need to consider costs, priorities, and alternatives. In some cases, the principal may be asked to discuss alternatives with his faculty. When the budget is discussed with the board of education, principals should be present to describe the educational planning underlying the budget figures. In this way, a sound, educationally balanced budget can be developed and adopted in June.

This description should make it clear that budget-making needs to be based on long-range plans. Program considerations do not begin again each year. Program planning and, thus, budget-making are continuous undertakings that require intelligent involvement of principals by superintendents and of faculty and staff by principals.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE BUDGET. The details of administering the school district budget are important central administration responsibilities. These details include accounting, reporting, and auditing procedures that lead to effective budgetary control. Undoubtedly, the administration of the budget will require that principals follow certain procedures, particularly with reference to the purchase of supplies and equipment and to the use of services that are not provided by personnel under contract with the district, such as repair services and consultants. Here, again, procedures vary from district to district. In general, a school will receive certain allo-

cations for the year for specific purposes. The principal will probably require the expenditures of these allocations to the central administrative office and will be responsible for checking and reporting the receipt of purchased articles from the vendors. The storage and distribution of supplies within the school will also be under the direction of the principal.

Probably the key responsibility of the principal in the administration of the school district budget is to understand and to follow the procedures developed for this purpose. School district money is public money, and its use must be accounted for accurately. This means that the principal should accept his share of the responsibility for assuring that school district financial operations are conducted in an efficient and businesslike manner.

General Finance

Every educational administrator should be a community educational leader. Among other things, this means that he should understand certain facts about the public school system in his state and district so that he can provide accurate and meaningful information to the citizens of his school community. School finance, a topic of interest to all taxpayers, is a topic that lends itself to inaccuracies and misinformation. Although a secondary school principal need not be a scholar of school finance, he should know enough about the school finance program to speak intelligently about it. Finance programs vary greatly from state to state. All that we can do here is to suggest finance areas with which principals should be familiar and to encourage principals to become aware of the facts in these areas. The following questions indicate the finance areas that should be covered:

1. What is the total school district operating budget for the current year?
2. What portion of this budget is supported by local, county, state, and federal funds?
3. What tax sources provide school funds from each of these levels of government?
4. What expenditures is the district making for capital outlay purposes for the current year?
5. What is (are) the source(s) of capital outlay funds for the district?
6. What are the expenditures per pupil for the operation of the school for the current year?

7. What factors have led to increased school costs, if any, in recent years?
8. What kinds of educational activities must be carried on or educational standards met in order for the district to receive its full share of county, state, or federal funds?
9. What is the meaning and purpose of a salary schedule and what are the provisions of the schedule in this district?
10. What specific increased expenditures, if any, have led to improved quality of education in this district?

In addition to knowing the facts needed to answer these questions, principals should have some familiarity with school finance terms. It is *amazing, for example, to find taxpayers who do not understand the meaning of assessed valuation of property, millage, or bond issue.* It is equally surprising to find school principals who know nothing of the foundation program principle, equalization, or the differences between current operation expenses and capital outlay expenses. Every school principal should have on or near his desk a good basic textbook in school finance and should have in his mind a number of basic financial facts and understandings. The principal should also take steps to pass some of this financial "know-how" on to his staff. Teachers should understand basic school finance and should at least be aware of the sources of the funds that pay their salaries.

BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

Business management encompasses those jobs that relate to the efficient and effective handling of money and materials within the school. This task area is an important part of the principal's job and one that needs to be performed with care.

Internal Accounting

As any secondary school principal knows, free public secondary education involves a great deal of money management *within the school.* Student clubs, class groups, athletics, musical programs, Future Farmers of America, Junior Red Cross, each of these groups and many more spend and receive money. The responsibility for these internal funds or non-appropriated monies almost always rests squarely with the principal. This means that the principal needs to be responsible for the development of a system that provides for the following:

1. Preparing budgets.
2. Recording receipts.
3. Crediting receipts to the proper fund.
4. Banking receipts.
5. Authorizing expenditures.
6. Receiving invoices or statements.
7. Making payments for expenditures.
8. Billing expenditures to the proper fund.
9. Issuing regular financial reports.
10. Providing for periodic outside audits.

Although the size of a school and the number of activities within a school influence the exact nature of this system, no school in which internal funds are handled can afford to deal with such funds without a regular system embodying these ten elements. The principal who operates an internal accounting system in his head, without any records to provide a basis of checking for accuracy, is treading on dangerous ground.

Several general factors need to be considered before the specifics of the internal accounting system are discussed. First, those groups within a school that are to be permitted to receive and to expend funds should be defined. The fewer such groups, the better. For example, one school has close to one hundred such separate entities, including the Class of 19XX (Boys), the Class of 19XX (Girls), the Class of 19XX (General), the Class of 19XX (Senior Trip Account), the Class of 19XX (Senior Gift Fund), and the Class of 19XX (Special Fund). This, of course, is a ridiculous extreme. Fund accounts should be established with some sense of order and with the provision that the responsible persons in each group with a fund account will keep the necessary records to eliminate the establishment of subfunds at the school level. Thus, the Class of 19XX should have a fund and the officers and advisers of the class should keep track of any subfunds in their own books. Groups that can logically be combined should be; those that need to be separate for good reasons should be kept separate.

A second general consideration relates to the use of students in operating the internal accounting system. Students can play important roles in this activity, but they should be so supervised that the burden of financial responsibility is on a faculty member. Large sums of money are often involved in internal accounts. It is neither fair nor professionally sound to place the burden of responsibility for these monies upon a student, regardless of how capable that student may be. Students can accept

responsibility for preparing and living within a budget, for keeping financial records, and for issuing receipts. However, these activities should be done under the direction of a teacher or administrator with responsibility. Certainly, there is no excuse for sending a student from the school to a downtown bank carrying a sack of money because the money is student body receipts. Nor can shortages or inaccuracies be excused with the statement, "We let the students handle their funds; it's such a good learning activity!" Student participation in internal accounting procedures needs to be intelligently planned so that this participation is a good learning experience undertaken with responsible adult supervision.

All of those charged with responsibility for managing financial accounts should be bonded. The cost of bonds should be charged to the internal accounts.

A third important point concerns the mixing of student body or internal funds with school district tax funds. If at all possible, it is advantageous to keep these two kinds of funds in separate banks. Otherwise, bank employees can easily become confused and charge student body fund checks to school district accounts or vice versa. If these two kinds of funds must be deposited in one bank, the check blanks used for each account should be distinctive and the fact that the two funds are separate and not mutually interchangeable should be clearly established with the officials and employees of the bank.

One final general point should be raised. Although policy will differ from district to district, some clear understanding of valid uses of internal funds should be developed. A secondary school often has three sources of funds. First are the regular, school district funds, primarily from tax sources. Second are the internal funds under discussion in this section. Finally, various outside groups, such as parent-teacher associations or booster clubs, often raise and expend funds for school purposes. Policies should be developed at the district level to define the types of expenditures appropriate for each class of funds. Some of these policy statements will be dictated by state law. In some states, for example, equipment for interscholastic athletics cannot be purchased with tax funds. In general, internal and outside group funds should not be expended for purposes that clearly fall within general school district obligations. Thus, although student body funds may have to be used to purchase athletic equipment, such funds should not be used to purchase equipment for the regular school physical education program. This latter use of student body funds leads to the support of the school program by a few rather than by the

STUDENT BODY ACCOUNTS,

| Date | To or From Whom | Check or Receipt No. | Amount | |
|--------|-------------------------|----------------------|-------------|-------------|
| | | | Received | Expended |
| | Balance Carried Forward | | \$ 9,320.00 | \$ 5,000.31 |
| 4/2/60 | Acme Athletic Supply | 321 | | 52.31 |
| 4/2/60 | Mr. Jones (Senior Play) | 1052 | 105.00 | |
| 4/2/60 | John Jones (Insurance) | 1053 | 2.50 | |
| 4/2/60 | Smith Jewelry | 322 | | 96.49 |
| | Totals | | | |

Figure 1. General Ledger, Itemized Receipts and Expenditures

citizens of the total district. By the same token, expenditures for special purposes clearly beyond the scope of school district purposes (i.e., a dance or a banquet for athletes) should be made from funds of the student body or of outside groups.

General Accounting

In a system for internal accounting, at least one and possibly two ledgers should be maintained. In a situation that is not overly complex, a general ledger in which both receipts and expenditures are posted is sufficient. Such a ledger is illustrated in Figure 1. In a complex situation, a receipts journal is maintained and total receipts rather than individual items are

TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL

| Fund, Athletics | | Fund, Dramatics | | Fund, Class of 19XX | |
|-----------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------|
| Received | Expended | Received | Expended | Received | Expended |
| \$ 4,321.12 | \$ 2,015.89 | \$ 339.62 | \$ 161.05 | \$ 875.28 | \$ 536.15 |
| | 52.31 | | | | |
| | | 105.00 | | | |
| 2.50 | | | | | |
| | | | | | 96.49 |

posted to the general ledger. Figure 2 illustrates the use of a receipts journal.

Sample entries in Figure 1 illustrate how the general ledger provides a picture of the over-all condition of the student body account as well as of each fund within it. Totals for each fund can be used to check general totals. The bank account will be carried in the name of the general account and bank statements can be checked against the over-all column. Many variations of this form are available. Some provide for the calculation of a balance at each entry, that is, receipts minus expenditures. Others provide a "purpose" column following the "to or from whom" column. Additional pages provide enough columns for the number of funds existing in the total internal accounting system.

If a receipts journal is used, the general ledger for any one day would

carry one single receipts entry. The total from the journal for the day would be entered in the column to the left of the dark line (Figure 1) and the appropriate subtotals would be entered under each fund account. In our example (Figure 2) there are seven receipt items for February 3, 1960, but only the totals are carried to the general ledger. In a school where there is a large number of receipts each day, the use of the receipts journal leads to a general ledger that is more easily read than if this general ledger contains all details of both receipts and expenditures.

In addition to these central records, each group with a fund should maintain its own record of receipts and expenditures. This will provide an additional check upon the accuracy of accounting and will assist organizations in living within their budgets.

FUND BUDGETS. In considering budgets for school groups, the principal often faces a nettlesome policy question. Should each group be asked to live within the income it can raise or should all income be pooled and allocated in terms of budget requests? Should athletics, for example, which often has a large income (and, coaches will be quick to point out, large expenditures), be asked to help support a student poetry club? Or, if the poetry club wants to spend money, should it find ways to raise money?

As a general policy, it is wise to pool income into a general fund and allocate money to each group in terms of a budget request. If a group requests funds and suggests no source of income, the allocating body can investigate whether this lack of income is due to legitimate reasons or to lethargy. The allocation should include consideration of this finding. The allocating body should be a student body group, such as a student council, that operates with the advice and consent of the principal. For the most part, this policy leads to a situation in which the expenditures of each group closely approximate income.

An additional problem arises with regard to class funds. Often, a senior class has raised and saved money during its three or four years in the school and uses this money for a trip, a gift to the school, or some similar purpose. The pooling of income does not lend itself to this practice of carrying a fund balance from year to year. This problem should be considered and a solution to it made a part of the policy related to budgeting. A common practice is to permit class groups to keep their funds out of the general fund pool, to live within their income, and to carry balances from year to year.

RECEIPTS JOURNAL, URBAN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

| Date | From Whom Received | Purpose | Receipt Number | Amount Received | Fund, General Amount | Fund, Athletic Amount | Fund, Photo Club Amount |
|--------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| 2/3/60 | Sadie Smith | Class photo | 3012 | \$ 1.50 | | | \$ 1.50 |
| 2/3/60 | John Jones | " | 3013 | 1.50 | | | 1.50 |
| " | William Williams | " | 3014 | 1.50 | | | 1.50 |
| " | Fred Fredericks | USHS activity card | 3015 | 2.30 | \$ 2.30 | | |
| " | Sally Jenkins | Basketball tickets | 3016 | 3.50 | | \$ 3.50 | |
| " | Bruce Watkins | Class photo | 3017 | 1.50 | | | 1.50 |
| " | William McCord | Class photo | 3018 | 1.50 | | | 1.50 |
| | Daily Totals | | | \$ 13.30 | \$ 2.30 | \$ 3.50 | 7.50 |
| 2/4/60 | Ida Lacey | Basketball Tickets | 3019 | 15.00 | | 15.00 | |

Figure 2. Receipts Journal

Regardless of the exact nature of the policy relating to budgets, each group with a fund account should be required to submit a budget for the year. If possible, these budgets should be submitted in the spring so that the financial operations can begin on a businesslike basis at the start of the new school year. If this is not feasible, budget preparation and approval should be the first order of business for each group at the opening of the school year. Approved budgets should be filed and periodic reports made to each group by the central accounting agency concerning the relationship between the projected and actual financial operation for the year.

RECEIPTS. Each receipt of money should be recorded at least in duplicate. Serially-numbered receipt forms should be used. Several companies make small receipt machines that make it possible to issue and file receipts in an orderly manner with a minimum of expense. Each receipt should contain the date, name of person or organization from whom money is received, purpose of payment, fund to be credited, and signature of person receiving payment. One copy of the receipt should be given to the person making payment and one kept on file centrally. In some schools, a third copy of the receipt is given to the treasurer of the organization to be credited with the payment received.

If an organization is sponsoring an event for which payments are to be received, some arrangement should be made for the orderly receipt and acknowledgement of such payments. For many events, serially-numbered tickets of admission will serve this purpose. A school can purchase serially-numbered tickets in quantity in various colors quite inexpensively. The central treasurer can then issue tickets to any group needing them, and the numbers can be used to check receipts. If this is not possible, receipt books of some kind should be used by the group to account for its income. All receipts received by a group should be turned in daily to the central accounting office and a receipt issued to acknowledge such payments.

The copies of the receipts kept by the central accounting office are used to credit the various funds in the receipts journal or in the general ledger. Individual receipt forms should be saved for at least a year and receipt numbers should be posted in the journal or ledger to facilitate checking if necessary.

DEPOSITING FUNDS. Secondary school internal account receipts often involve fairly large sums of money. The safest place for such money is a bank. Arrangements should be made for the daily deposit of the internal

account funds of a school in a bank, keeping out only enough money to make change. Money received should be tallied with receipts issued each day and should then be deposited.

| HILLY VALLEY HIGH SCHOOL Purchase Order | | |
|--|-------------|------|
| No. _____ Date _____ | | |
| Deliver to: _____ _____ | | |
| Representing _____ <div style="text-align: center;">(Fund account)</div> | | |
| Quantity | Description | Cost |
| | | |
| Approved by: _____ <div style="text-align: center;">(Authorized student)</div> _____ <div style="text-align: center;">(Faculty adviser)</div> | | |

Figure 3. Purchase Order Form

One problem that arises often in these days of night football and basketball games is safeguarding the large receipts from such activities. In almost every community it is possible to make arrangements with police officers to stand by while receipts are counted and checked and to accompany a school official to a bank to deposit receipts in a night depository. No other alternative is as satisfactory as this. Receipts may occasionally have

to be placed in a safe, but if this is done, an adequate vault should be installed and the money deposited in a bank as soon as possible.

EXPENDITURES. No expenditures should be made in cash for any purposes. Each group with a fund account should be supplied with purchase orders and with vouchers. Figures 3 and 4 illustrate common forms for these uses. All purchases by any representative of a student group should

| HILLY VALLEY HIGH SCHOOL | |
|--|----------------------------|
| Voucher | |
| No. _____ | Date _____ |
| Pay to _____ | |
| _____ | |
| _____ | |
| Amount \$ _____ | |
| From fund _____ | |
| Purpose: Purchase order _____ | |
| Invoice _____ | (Attached) |
| _____ | |
| _____ | |
| (Describe purpose briefly) | |
| The goods or services mentioned above were received and payment is approved. | |
| _____ (Authorized student) | _____ (Faculty adviser) |
| PAID | |
| Date _____ | Check No. _____ |
| _____ (Authorized signature) | |

Figure 4. Voucher Form

be made only with a signed purchase order. When goods have been received, a voucher should be sent to the central accounting office, and the authorized person will issue a check. Vouchers will be used for posting expenditures to the general ledger and should be saved for at least one year to facilitate checking individual payments.

It should be noted that the forms shown here provide for both faculty and student signatures. Checks to be drawn upon student body funds might also require these two types of signatures. Here, again, this is a matter of policy. In general, students should play a role in approving purchases for student body groups and in approving and making payments from student body funds. Each organization should designate one or two students who are authorized to sign purchase orders and vouchers. Such forms should also require the signature of a faculty adviser. Checks should require the signatures of both a student and a faculty person. Such a procedure provides a healthy atmosphere of student participation and responsibility and also avoids any appearance of unbridled faculty or administration control of student body funds. Regardless of what the procedure is, however, it should be absolutely clear who is to sign what so that business procedures are orderly.

FINANCIAL REPORTS. Regular reports of the status of internal funds should be made to the student body, to the superintendent, and to the board of education. Most schools issue monthly reports. These reports should include the information illustrated in Figure 5. The information concerning the check between the report and the bank statement is not essential, but it provides clear evidence of accuracy. In many schools, a report such as this is sent to each treasurer of a student group, each faculty adviser, the superintendent, each board member, and is posted on bulletin boards for the student body. The information for such a monthly report is readily available from the general ledger.

AUDITS. In some states, internal accounts are audited by state examiners at the same time as school district accounts are audited. In other states, state auditors do not examine internal accounts. No matter who does the audit, internal accounts should be checked by an outside auditor once a year. This yearly audit is necessary because the students working on these accounts will probably change yearly and new personnel should not assume charge of accounts that have not received an outside audit. Most auditors will check for clarity and accuracy and will also make suggestions related to the efficiency of the accounting procedures. Such suggestions

should be encouraged and changes should be made if improvements are likely to result. A careful, yearly audit provides a sense of security and often results in improved procedures, which may save time and lead to increased accuracy with decreased effort.

| HOPEVILLE HIGH SCHOOL Monthly Statement, Internal Accounts <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; width: 100%;"> (month) (year) </div> | | | | |
|---|----------------------------|----------|----------------------------|---------|
| Fund | Balance Carried Forward | Receipts | Expenditures | Balance |
| | | | | |
| Total | | | | |
| (1) Total balance checked with bank statement as of _____ (date) | | | | |
| (2) Checks not cashed as of that date \$ _____ | | | | |
| (3) Bank statement balance equals \$ _____ plus \$ _____ <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> (Total balance) (2, above) </div> | | | | |
| The above represents a true and accurate statement of the financial condition of the internal accounts of Hopeville High School. Date _____ | | | | |
| _____ (Authorized student) | | | _____ (Faculty adviser) | |

Figure 5. Monthly Financial Statement Form

EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLY MANAGEMENT

In addition to the business management responsibilities already mentioned, the principal has certain tasks related to the administration of the school district budget and to the care and distribution of district supplies and equipment. *Here, again, district policies govern many of his procedures.* But regardless of these policies, he will undoubtedly need to develop procedures for requisitioning supplies and for maintaining inventory records.

Supply Management

Supplies are delivered to a school in accordance with the budget requests. Certain of these materials, such as laboratory supplies, can be delivered

| WHITNEY COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS Supply Control | | | | |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|--------------------|
| School <u>Adam Junior High</u> | | | School year <u>1960-61</u> | |
| Paper, typing, white 8½ X 11 (Item) | | | | ream (unit) |
| Number units budgeted for year | | | | 100 |
| Date | Units Received | Units Disbursed | To Whom | Balance on Hand |
| 7/15/60 | 60 | | Supply office | 60 |
| 9/3/60 | | 5 | Miss Jones | 55 |
| 9/3/60 | | 5 | Mr. Smith | 50 |
| 9/10/60 | 40 | | Supply office | 90 |
| | | | | |

Figure 6. Supply Control Form

to and stored in teaching areas. Other materials need to be stored in central spaces for distribution during the year. The principal needs to know what supplies are expected for the year, what supplies have been received, where supplies are stored, and to whom supplies have been issued. A simple form, such as is shown in Figure 6, will assist in this task. In a large school, records such as this need to be kept by personnel in a supply room; in a smaller school, such records can be maintained in the principal's office.

Procedures need to be established so that supplies are not "grabbed" off the shelf by any and all teachers or students. Although the form shown in Figure 6 provides a running inventory of supplies, it does not indicate whether, for example, Miss Jones had asked for typewriting paper when

| WHITNEY COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS | | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------|
| Supply Control | | | |
| School <u>Adam Junior High</u> | | School year <u>1960-61</u> | |
| <u>Jones, Mary Ellen</u> | | Subjects <u>English II, III, IV</u> | |
| (Teacher's name) | | | |
| Supplies requested | | Units | Units |
| Units | Description | Approved | Delivered |
| 10 ream | White typing paper, 8½ X 11 | 8 | 8, 6 |
| 1 gross | Pencils, 2 H. | 1 | 1 |
| 2 boxes | B.B. Chalk, white | 2 | 2, 2 |

Figure 7. Teacher Supply Control Form

the budget was prepared or whether she suddenly decided she needed some in September. In some schools, a companion file to the running inventory, which shows teacher requests for supplies and the degree to which such requests have been met, is maintained. An example of this type of form is shown in Figure 7. The left-hand side of this form can be completed by the teacher during the budget preparation period and the approved figures entered when the budget is completed. The use of this form is not meant to lead to complete inflexibility. Alterations in assignment of supplies should be possible, but the form will provide a guide, which is much better than haphazard controls over supplies.

One final point should be mentioned in discussing supplies. Almost every principal is faced occasionally with the problem caused by the teacher who decides that he needs some special material, goes to a store and purchases it, and has the bill sent to the school. No procedure or process will completely eliminate this problem. However, several things might help. First, teachers should know that this procedure is not correct and that such special purchases can be requested through district channels. Secondly, merchants should be aware of district procedures and should know that purchases made without correct purchase orders are not legal. Finally, persistent violators of the correct procedures should pay for their purchases. A school district cannot long operate if each employee of the district considers himself a purchasing agent of the district.

A principal is generally responsible for the care of the equipment in the school he administers. This means that he should know how many desks are in the building, what kinds of industrial arts equipment are in the building, and so on. In other words, he should have an accurate and up-to-date inventory.

A useful inventory indicates both the quantity of equipment within a building and its location. The most difficult part of an inventory is its original establishment. Once good records are available, the maintenance of the inventory becomes somewhat routine. Very large schools with machine accounting systems often use machine inventory procedures. With these procedures, a separate card is maintained for each item of equipment and processing these cards can indicate either total quantities or location of equipment. In smaller schools, two forms may be used, such as those illustrated in Figures 8 and 9.

The form in Figure 8 has been completed. The last entry illustrates one method of indicating the movement of equipment within a building. The use of negative numbers in the "quantity received" column is a method of recording the movement of equipment out of the building. The use of an adding machine will quickly show the total quantity of any item in the building. The form shown in Figure 9 is useful for determining the exact equipment within a single room. It can also be used to check the location columns in an item inventory card. A common procedure in the use of a room inventory form is to provide the teachers with copies of the previous year's inventory for their rooms to assist them in checking for the current year. Room inventories should be taken yearly and the room figures checked with the item cards.

| WHITNEY COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS | | | | |
|--|-------------------|-----------|---------------------|---|
| Inventory Card | | | | |
| School <u>Adam Junior High</u> | | | | |
| Desk, Teacher's, Single Pedestal, Wood (Item) | | | | |
| | | | | each (Unit) |
| Date Received | Quantity Received | Unit Cost | Received From | Location |
| 8/15/55 | 15 | \$72.50 | manufacturer | Rooms 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 15, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, 30 |
| 9/1/59 | -2 | - | traded in | Rooms 4, 22 |
| 9/1/59 | 2 | \$87.65 | manufacturer | Rooms 4, 22 |
| 8/11/60 | -4 | - | sent to high school | Rooms 1, 15, 18, 19 |
| 8/11/60 | - | - | Rooms 27, 30 | Rooms 1, 15 |

Figure 8. Inventory Card

| WHITNEY COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS Inventory Card | |
|---|---------------------|
| School _____ Room _____ | |
| Date _____ | |
| Quantity | Description of Item |
| | |

Figure 9. Inventory Card for Rooms

SCHOOL OFFICE MANAGEMENT

The secondary school principal must number among his tasks the responsibility for the management of the school office. This office is the contact point between the school and the public. The impression that people receive from this office is often the impression they have of the entire school. Thus, it is not only important to the operation of the school that the office be well managed, but it is an important phase of the public relations program of the school and of the school district.

The secondary school principal, however, must avoid making himself an office manager. He is an educational leader. Office management is only one part—and a small part—of his job. Too often, the principal allows

himself to become enmeshed in office trivia—answering the phone, sorting mail, manning an information counter, writing receipts, recording absences, and the like. Although this may result in an efficient office, it can lead to a most inefficient use of the principal's time. All of these office tasks must be provided for, but the principal is not meeting his challenge if he provides for these tasks by doing them himself.

A principal of a secondary school should have at least one full-time adult clerical assistant. In addition, students can be used as office assistants, provided that they are not placed in positions where confidential matters relating to fellow students are available to them or where they devote an undue portion of their time to this work.

Well-trained students can answer the telephone, sort mail, maintain certain files, and greet visitors. They can assist in distributing material from the office to classrooms. These student office assistants should be responsible to the chief clerical worker in the office and should not be expected to take orders from a number of people. The chief clerical worker is responsible to the principal and should not be expected to serve as a private secretary to each member of the faculty. The organization of the office and the assignment of office work should be delegated to the chief clerical assistant. The principal should hold periodic conferences with his clerical assistant to evaluate progress in office management.

In evaluating the work of the school office, the principal must be provided with an account of the kinds of activities being done there. In some cases, school office personnel will be performing services that might better be assigned elsewhere. In others, additional duties might be undertaken by office personnel. In the last analysis, the principal should do the following:

1. Be aware of the office work necessary for the efficient operation of the school.
2. Staff the school office with sufficient personnel—student and adult—to make it possible for the necessary office work to be done.
3. Delegate the management of the office to a responsible clerical assistant.
4. Periodically evaluate the effectiveness of the school office.

Much of the school office work can be made routine. Whenever possible, forms should be developed to facilitate the work of the school. Not only do forms make work go faster; they also eliminate errors that occur from the random recording of information. A number of firms print

standard school office forms that can be purchased in quantity inexpensively. Often such a purchase results in long-term savings of time and of energy.

MISCELLANEOUS MANAGEMENT CONCERNS

It is difficult to predict the exact nature of the management concerns that will face any given principal. In some schools, he will have responsibilities for the management of a school cafeteria; in others, he will have duties *related to the transportation system; in still others, he may oversee the operation of a student store.* In each of these and in many other areas, the principal will undoubtedly delegate the direct management of the service to another employee.

The principal's task will be to understand the purpose of the service, to staff the service, to select a manager to whom direct operational management can be delegated, to develop in cooperation with the manager a system of records that will permit control of the operation, to submit necessary reports concerning the operation to appropriate people within or without the school system, and to make periodic evaluations of the service, which will lead to suggestions for improvements.

If, for example, the principal has responsibilities for the management of all or part of a school transportation program, he will work with a head driver, a director of transportation, or some other staff member with operational management responsibility. It will be necessary to develop records relating to the students transported, to the miles of travel, to the maintenance of equipment, to fuel usage, and the like. Forms for requesting the use of buses for field trips or athletic events will be needed. Reports will be submitted to the superintendent and possibly to state department of education officials and others.

Without attempting to provide details for each of these management concerns, let us merely repeat that the principal, in any management task, will need to devise a system that permits him to plan, to control, and to evaluate the operation. This system will vary from district to district and from school to school. The test of the system is not that it be similar to what some expert has called an ideal system, but that it meet the needs of the principal as he fulfills his role in the management tasks in a given school situation.

In short, the administration of noninstructional personnel is not a task requiring techniques or principles different from those used in

dealing with instructional personnel. Indeed, probably the major factor needed by the principal is an attitude or point of view that leads him to accept the fact that no basic difference in personnel administration principles exists regardless of the roles assigned to the personnel.

CONCLUSION

The management functions of the principal are necessary, important, and legitimate. The performance of these functions is, however, well adapted to system and to routine. The principal who does not develop system and routine for meeting these management problems will find either that the problems are poorly met or that the meeting of the problems requires an undue expenditure of his time and effort.

No attempt has been made here to present systems which can be adopted *in toto* by any school. Such systems do not exist. Our attempt has been to point out the management problems likely to arise in a secondary school and to describe some ways in which these problems might be met. A crucial phase of the principal's management task, however, is to study the problems as they exist in his school and to proceed, utilizing all possible advice, to develop plans for dealing with these problems. It is the ability to meet this kind of a challenge that is characteristic of the successful secondary school principal.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a statement of educational specifications for a given subject-matter area in a school with which you are familiar. Assume that these specifications are to assist an architect in developing plans for a new school with a projected life of fifty years.
2. Prepare a paper defending the affirmative or negative side of this statement: One hundred per cent utilization of secondary school facilities is neither possible nor desirable.
3. Prepare a short paper that could be used as a guide for a presentation of the school finance program in your state to a group of parents.
4. Describe the questions you as a secondary school principal would ask your teaching staff as you prepared an educational plan to underlie your budget requests for the next school year.
5. Prepare a policy statement to guide the development and administration of an accounting procedure for student body accounts. Include

consideration of the number and kinds of funds to be established, the role of students in the plan, and a system of internal checks and balances.

6. Develop the outline of a handbook for use by students who are to serve as clerical assistants in a secondary school office.
7. Prepare a brief talk that you as a secondary school principal could use in welcoming new noninstructional staff members to your school.

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COMMUNITY RELATIONS

THE BOUNDARIES OF THE SECONDARY school are the boundaries of the community it serves. It is not an island set apart; it is a social institution intimately related to the individuals, the families, and the other social institutions in the area with which it is identified. When we think of school-community relations or, as it is often called, public relations for the secondary school, the dimensions of our concern for understanding, communication, acceptance, and goodwill are broad and involved. Relations with the community cannot be avoided. The community will inform itself and formulate and register opinions about the secondary school in spite of any effort by the school to condition such relationships. But such community relations, left more or less to chance, may or may not be of a positive, enlightened nature. In fact, case after case could be pointed out where school-community relations left to chance have resulted in opinions based on the lack of information, misinformation, gossip, and rumor. It is the school administrator's prerogative to organize and develop a school-community relations program that will nurture community enlightenment and understanding.

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS DEFINED

"This high school needs a better program of school-community relations." How often we hear some such statement, and in many instances the pro-

nouncement is sound. Every secondary school needs to improve its relationship with the community it serves. But more often than not the critic has in mind some flamboyant publicity program that will make the school known above all other high schools in the area. This, in the minds of many, is good school-community relations—good public relations. Really, it is merely publicity.

Actually, the publicity-centered concept of school-community relations has possibilities for negative results when weighed against the basic understandings desirable to both the school and the patrons. Publicity as such is not undesirable; on the contrary, it can be a most useful tool in public relations. Basic to the concept of school-community relations is what the school is, what it does, how it does it, and what it needs to do the job. It is the conduct of the school that comes first and, based on it, communication and publicity about the school come second. In other words, all the publicity in the world will not make a good school; it is the quality of the school that is the paramount requisite for any discerning community appreciation or understanding. Concerns about the quality of the educational program, the guidance program, the success of graduates in college, the costs of education, and the effectiveness of instruction are not easily glossed over. Publicity about some favorable aspects of the school is most desirable, but it cannot be counted upon as a substitute for broader understandings.

Briefly, then, school-community relations is the harmony of understanding that exists between the school and the publics it serves. This composite of singulars and plurals is intentional. The conduct of the school relates itself to many publics in the community, including students, parents, nonparents, teachers, merchants, farmers, tradesmen, and others. Good community relations anticipates a two-way understanding—the school must understand the community and the community must understand the school.

The student constitutes the principal's first public with whom he must develop fruitful relations. What is good for the student and his education is a concern of the entire community. The school that studies the community and its youth and plans with the community for its youth has established a proper foundation for an effective program of school-community relations. The process of working together, the cooperation of school and community, opens and maintains channels of communication for a two-way flow of information, and information is the basis of all understanding.

The secondary school in its community relations program must be concerned with publics both within the school and outside the school. The students constitute an internal public. The teaching staff is an important internal public, the custodial force, the cafeteria workers, the bus drivers, all groups directly connected with the operation of the school may be considered internal publics for school-community relations purposes. All of these have outside contacts in which they may play a positive or a negative role as far as communication and understanding about the school is concerned.

Every community has many external publics with sincere interest in education. Nearly every worthwhile community group has some plank in its platform that relates it to education; patriotic societies, veterans' groups, service clubs, women's clubs, church groups, and civic groups are good examples. The well-formulated community relations program of the school will relate itself to these organizations to tie into their educational interests and concerns and capitalize on ready-made interests and contacts. Among the external publics are community agencies dedicated to youth service. The secondary school must work closely with such agencies without taking over their work, on one hand, and being exploited to accomplish the agencies' purposes, on the other hand.

The parent-teachers association, the parent advisory council, and, to a large extent, the booster clubs and the music parents organizations, are both internal and external publics. These groups are identified with both the school and the outside community. Many members in these groups are also members of other external groups. As such, they provide effective entree to many external publics not as closely related to the school. These "in-between" publics have become the bulwark of the school-community relations programs in many high schools. Such groups have been major strengths in interpreting school needs, bond issues, curriculum changes, activities programs, and school projects, while at the same time lending support and providing media and means for obtaining patrons' reactions and ideas on what is wanted in the school program in the process.

THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE

The chief responsibility for a program of school-community relations rests with the principal. This is one of his most important task areas. The attitude of the principal toward his responsibilities for school-community

relations is a matter of primary significance. Does he actually see public relations as a part of his job? Is he willing to work at improving school-community relations, or does he see this task as one to be handled in the main by the central office or by specialized staff personnel? Does he take an active part, or is this just another chore he delegates to someone else? The principal must assume the attitude that interpreting his school to the public, developing sound working relations with the community, and promoting understanding is a professional responsibility he cannot abdicate. Upon him, and him alone, rests the primary responsibility of initiating and maintaining a sound program of public relations.

Although attitude is very important and serves as a springboard for motivation and initiative, the principal must also possess a sound knowledge of what constitutes an effective school-community relations program. He must be a student of public relations, avail himself of opportunities to study the subject, know how to appraise a program feature, be willing to test ideas, experiment, use his imagination, make good use of consultative help, elicit and make use of assistance available on the staff and in the community, organize and channel efforts for developing wide understandings, and possess a sense of timing. Competition, precept, and example in modern society through every possible media leaves the educator no choice but to become alert, knowledgeable, and competent in the arts of influence and persuasion. It is difficult to imagine a cause more worthwhile than the sound education of the future citizens and consumers of the nation.

The modern school administrator must possess and develop skills and competencies in public relations techniques. It is often said of better principals, "He knows his community." What does this statement mean? Usually it describes an individual's competence in understanding the social forces, the power structure, the social groupings, interactions, loyalties, institutions, and the peculiarities of the community. This skill of "knowing the community" does not come about by chance. Men who are successful in this regard work at it constantly. They are social scientists in the true sense of the word. Their approach is systematic, organized, objective, and thorough.

Another characteristic of the principal successful in his public relations effort is that of being able to communicate. "His grapevine really works," "He gets ideas across to the people of his district," "The people in his community are informed about their schools." Again, this is not mere accident. Communication techniques must be studied and skills devel-

oped to produce effective results. "Know your schools" must be more than a slogan or a theme for an open-house event. People "know" only as they are informed and according to the kind of information they receive.

Again, one hears, "He certainly has good involvement of people in his operations," "He knows how to use people effectively," "He gets everybody in on the act," or "That community has wonderful cooperation between the citizens and the schools." Without doubt, an analysis of such situations would show that the principal is skilled in group dynamics, knows how to channel group effort, helps people to gain satisfactions from working with and for the schools, and gives credit for accomplishments.

The principal has a key role in any public relations program. It is one of his primary responsibilities. His attitude toward school-community relations, his knowledge of what constitutes good school-community relations, and his skills in public relations techniques are minimum essential expectancies and requisites for the leader of today's schools. Some suggestions and ideas as to the implementation of desirable attitudes, knowledges, and skills in community relations efforts are related in the balance of this chapter.

Over the desk of every secondary school principal might well be inscribed these words, "Dedicated to Community Service." In a very real sense, he, his office, and the school he heads is dedicated to community service. As a recognized community leader in the area, the principal will identify himself with service clubs, youth organizations, churches, civic groups, and such other positive efforts in his environs as his time will permit. He gives freely of his time and talents not just because he is a public servant but because he has a deep conviction that he has an obligation to set an example for others. In turn, he has the right to expect reasonable willingness on the part of staff members and citizens in the community to contribute time and effort for school enterprises.

In most communities, the secondary school is called upon occasionally to contribute to some aspect of social and civic service. Schools have an enviable record in service projects such as civil disaster programs, safety programs, beautification and clean-up projects, school forests, and many other worthwhile enterprises. Such efforts, in addition to having instructional value, have helped to bring the school and the community into closer harmony with each other on a basis over and beyond academics and instructional services. Such programs are another way of telling the people what the school is, what it does, and how it does it. They also demonstrate

- the fact that the secondary school as a social institution has a community consciousness and a willingness to participate in community services.

Community service can be defended not alone on its public relations value but on its merits as a means of early development in youth the sense of responsibility for community responsibility and service. The secondary school students of today will be the citizens in charge of the community in a very short time.

WORKING WITH STAFF

Explorations of the processes involved in school-community relations have consistently revealed that the classroom teacher is one of the most fundamental links in the entire process. Generally speaking, people do not react to the brick-and-mortar aspects of the school; they react to people identified with the institution—teachers, students, coaches, administrators, clerks. *Although admittedly an oversimplification, the statement, "The teacher is the school," takes on considerable significance in the family discussion around the dinner table where Jane is singing the praises of her science teacher or vice versa. The echoed phrase, "It starts in the classroom," is an apt description of the genesis of school public relations. Although the importance of the classroom teacher has been widely recognized, there have been very few significant studies of the public relations activities of teachers. The popularity of teachers, once thought to be some kind of a gauge for public relations value, has seemingly been devalued when graduates, in naming their best teachers in high school, select them on bases other than their popularity. On the basis of what we know about the teacher's impact on school-community relations, it seems safe to conjecture that teacher effectiveness in building harmonious understandings between the school and the community is a composite of many things—popularity, good teaching, fairness, empathy, understanding, discipline, communication, and other things—but primarily effective teaching.*

Teachers make impressions upon the public whether they realize it or not. They cannot avoid it. Normal classroom activities have public relations implications. In addition, there are the activities sponsored by the teacher specifically pointed to improving school-community relations. The nature, extent, and effectiveness of the public relations activities of the teacher will depend very largely upon his concept of the purposes of the public relations program, and the support, assistance, and coordination given him in his efforts by the administration. It is well recognized that

some teachers seemingly have more of a flair for good public relations activities than others on the staff, and these talents should be used in the over-all program. However, it is most unfortunate when, as in some situations, one or two staff members apparently carry the load in public relations activities. Improving public relations is a task requiring teamwork.

Teachers' Views On Public Relations

One of the few studies of teachers' views on public relations was conducted recently by the National Education Association, in which 5000 teachers were sent questionnaires in urban communities of 2500 or more population.¹ The survey included elementary and secondary teachers. Over 3000 completed questionnaires were returned. The study revealed that most teachers think of public relations as a means to stimulate the interest and participation of laymen in the school program. A small per cent of the respondents thought the purpose should be to "sell" the educational program.

Better than three-quarters of the respondents believed that their principals kept them adequately informed about school policies, school board decisions, and possible trouble spots.

Teachers generally felt that visits to pupils' homes is a constructive public relations technique, but relatively few of the teachers polled made use of such visits as part of their programs. Fewer than ten per cent of the schools had an organized program to encourage home visits. Of those reporting, almost twice as many elementary schools had a program of home visiting as high schools. Sixty-eight per cent of the high schools responding indicated that home visits were left to the guidance counselors or other special personnel; the same was true for 40 per cent of the elementary schools represented in the survey. More than half of the teachers responding had not visited in any home in the district for any purpose during the previous school year. Teachers in the larger cities reported making the fewest home visits and contacts. Less than 10 per cent of the respondents had visited more than half of the homes of their pupils.

The study revealed that from the teacher's point of view the sending of news letters and notes to parents still falls considerably below the degree to which it is considered a useful public relations technique. This is somewhat surprising in view of the findings of surveys made in some

¹ Research Division, National Education Association, *The Classroom Teacher and Public Relations* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1959).

cities as to parent and teacher appraisal of the school news letter.² These studies showed that parents and teachers gave a high priority to newsletters both as to acceptance and to effectiveness; or, perhaps the acceptance is related to the quality, format, and content of the communications.

Parent-teacher organizations, the study revealed, are widespread and are as yet one of the best media for drawing parents into the school orbit.

Class contacts with the community, generally accepted as an effective technique for relating the school to the social environs, are unfortunately still being fostered on a limited scale only. Class contacts with the community are a two-way proposition. It is not only taking a class out into the surroundings but bringing members of the community into the classroom. Often there are laymen with specialized knowledge who can make a significant addition to class activity and who are willing to contribute to the instructional process. Teachers almost unanimously agree that this is good public relations technique, but less than half of those polled in the above study ever made use of the idea. It would appear that we short-change ourselves by not inviting laymen on occasion into the classroom. In many instances such visits can make a positive contribution to the classroom instructional program, and they serve as a good public relations technique in bringing the school in closer relation to the patrons.

Teacher Participation in Community Activities

Teachers are people, but in the eyes of many school patrons they are rather special people. Regardless of the isolated instances and the occasional unpleasant experiences of a few teachers, generally speaking, teachers command a definite degree of prestige. When a teacher participates in a community activity, it is noticed and invariably appreciated. People in the community feel that the teacher is one of them. This feeling tends to break down or shorten any imagined social distance between the school, exemplified by the teacher, and the people of the community. People feel that they know someone up at the high school. Knowing someone breaks down the barriers of strangeness and opens channels of communication. At the very least, it provides a readiness for communication that does not exist on the stranger level.

Several studies have indicated a positive relationship between teacher participation in community affairs and an effective public relations

² Informal interviews and surveys made by the authors of newsletter acceptance and values in Akron and Columbus, Ohio, and in Shorewood, Wisconsin.

program. That is, in selected communities where the school-community relations were considered good by several measures, there was a high incidence of teacher participation in community groups and affairs. In one high school the staff public relations committee made a survey of staff participation in local affairs and utilized these teachers as communicators of information and materials prepared by the committee for general dissemination.

Checks made on teacher participation in community organizations show the following priority: church activities, social and recreational clubs, church related clubs, fraternal and lodge groups, service clubs, and civic welfare organizations.³ It would be most unwise for the principal to attempt to dictate the kind and nature of staff participation in community affairs or organizations, but he should encourage rather than stifle such participation, recognizing the liaison values of these school and community contacts. Where teachers take on special responsibilities in connection with outside organizations it should be taken into consideration as a part of the school's community service load and obligation.

Nonschool Public Relations Activities

Almost anything the school or its personnel does can be given a public relations twist. There are times when the school and school personnel are called upon to do things that are sheer exploitation for personal gain or the advantage of special interest groups. For instance, some people reason that since school property is purchased from public funds there is no good reason why they should not be allowed the private use of it now and then, even at the expense of depriving the school of its use for the time being. It is doubtful that public relations is served in allowing the private use of a projector when it is needed in the classroom. In quite another vein, it is doubtful that public relations is served by permitting someone to advertise in the school at the expense of others or to exploit the students in other ways for special gain or advantage. If the schools would permit it, they would be the finest captive audience for advertising and propaganda imaginable.

High schools are asked to do many things in the name of goodwill and public relations. The principal must carefully weigh such requests to determine their true relationship to the educational program and the

³ Informal survey made by members of a class in School Community Relations at Ohio State University 1958. See also: *NEA Research Bulletin* Vol. 37, No. 2, p. 40, April 1959.

organization in a large school is the student council representation in the membership of West High PTA. Here, students, teachers, and parents work together for common goals and objectives.

School-Parent Organizations

The PTA is the most universal parent-school organization, backed by a national organization with a membership of several million teachers and parents. This organization has several definite advantages to be considered by the school seeking to enhance its school-parent relationships: (1) It has a well-defined organizational pattern on the local, state, and national levels. (2) Its policies are defined and provide a framework of operation that keeps the organization from wandering into spheres outside its established limits. (3) It provides means for cooperative efforts between schools working toward the same objectives. (4) It provides opportunities for leadership training for the officers and committee chairmen in local organizations. (5) It has recognized strength and influence in promoting positive action for the welfare and education of youth. (6) Its operation is national in scope backed by a substantial membership in every part of the country.

Some school-parent groups, restive with the limitations imposed by the tenets of the PTA, have organized what have come to be known as PTO—Parent Teacher Organization. In many situations, these organizations are quite effective and satisfactory, but some well-intentioned organizations of this kind, lacking the defined policies and guidelines of a more established association, have assumed prerogatives in areas of administration and school operation that embarrass the board of education, the principal, and the teachers. When any school-parent group becomes a threat to any segment of those working for the education and welfare of the students, it has lost its opportunity to be truly effective.

Parent Advisory Groups

Aside from the PTA, PTO, booster club, band mothers, music parents, and similar structured organizations found in high schools, another means for working with parents appears to be gaining favor—the parent advisory council. The function of this organization is to advise the principal and the school staff. In one successful operation of this nature, a six-year high school with about 1600 students, the advisory council consists of four sets of parents from grades seven through twelve, elected by each

grade parent group at the beginning of the school year. In this instance, the principal and the deans invite the parents of each grade level for separate meetings as soon as school commences in the fall. These meetings serve to communicate with parents relative to school expectations, the social program of the school, guidance, and the many special problems at each grade level. Questions are invited and matters of interest are discussed informally. Parent committees are established to assist staff and students with affairs such as the open-house, concerts, exhibits, and similar events. Every effort is made to establish a spirit of cooperation and channels of communication. Upon occasion, study groups are organized around problems of concern to the parents and the school.

In the instance described here, the principal meets with the advisory council four times during the school year. Each meeting has a prepared agenda. Topics for discussion usually come from the principal but may also originate with members of the council. Both the principal and the parents claim the meetings to be fruitful sources of interchanging ideas and promoting understandings. The council understands that it is not a second board of education, and that its function is that of sharing ideas and giving assistance to the staff in meeting the operational problems of the school. On some matters of general school interest, such as the prom and Halloween, the parent advisory council join with the student council and the staff in the planning process.

Open Houses, Exhibits, Concerts, Demonstrations

Affairs held in the high school to which parents and the public are invited serve several purposes and objectives. One of these is the public relations function. Through the media of the concert, demonstration, exhibition, and similar events, the public is brought into close touch with the actual achievements of some phases of the instructional program. Students are motivated to do their best for a public showing and incidentally become active partners with others in the school in efforts to build better school-community relations. Although the exploitation of students purely for the purposes of providing program and entertainment for the public is rightfully frowned upon, the potentials of properly conceived special events involving students and the public for building understandings and appreciations should not be overlooked.

One of the most effective programs in this regard was an assembly program put on by the assembly training class, a special class for the gifted in English and dramatics, in which the problems of guidance and instruc-

tion were dramatically presented to the student body. The student council and the school leaders thought parents and the public should be invited to see it. As a result, the group was asked to put on a "command performance" to which the public was invited. Every person in that auditorium left with a much fuller understanding and appreciation of the instructional and guidance program in the high school.

Public events in the high school should have instruction and information-giving goals as chief purposes. We need to use our imaginations as to how these events can better communicate ideas about the school, what it is, what it does, and how it attempts to do it. Too many times, opportunities to tell a story about the schools are lost when they might well have been highlighted in a special event.

Bulletins, Letters, Report Cards

A good school-community relations program takes advantage of every opportunity and media of communication to keep the public informed. Principals with imagination are making increasing use of ready-made channels of communication, such as the report card message. Here, several times each year, an opportunity is presented to send some graphic message into the home about the school. It may be on some program feature, homework, school need, new course offering, or other information that will improve parent understanding.

A personalized form letter is very effective. We recall a letter written by the principal to the parents of juniors and seniors regarding prom activities, and another describing changes in the schedule to accommodate students desiring to take a more diversified program of studies. The letter should be well-written, short and to the point. Letter-writing is an art the principal can well afford to develop. Teachers, too, should be encouraged to use the written note or letter. Next to face-to-face contact or the voice contact via the telephone, the written message is a most effective way of communication.

The potential of the school newspaper as a medium of communication to parents should not be underestimated. Studies have indicated that the high school newspaper takes on considerable importance in the homes of students, particularly if the name of the student appears in print. The well-conceived school-community relations program will make good use of all student publications. Feature stories, pictures, guest editorials, and special articles provide excellent media for telling the school's story. Some

preplanning will assure programmed releases at regular intervals throughout the school year.

The yearbook is another student publication that should not be overlooked for public relations values. Although it has a limited audience and restricted possibilities for copy, the book represents the school. Better *no yearbook at all than one for which everyone is apologetic.*

The Newsletter

The newsletter, according to Burke, is a publication of two to twelve pages, produced by liquid duplicator, mimeograph, multilith, photo offset, *or ordinary printing.*⁴ It may be issued on some regular basis—monthly, at report card issuance, quarterly, and the like, or it may be issued irregularly as the need arises. For example, after considerable study, one high school recently found it advisable to change from a six-period day to an eight-period day, in order to provide for more flexibility in meeting instructional needs.⁵ The school had been operating on a six-period day for more than twenty years. This was a change that needed to be explained to patrons. A neat, four-fold, mimeographed letter, describing the change and its implications for improved instructional opportunities for students, was prepared by the principal and sent to every home.

Some schools have adopted a plan of sending home a news letter with each report card, in which various aspects of the school program are outlined for parent consumption. The newsletter differs from ordinary printed material sent home with the report card in that it is personalized, bearing the name of the principal and directed to the parents.

Other schools have adopted a standard letterhead format for all newsletters. Modern duplicating techniques allow a wide range of possibilities in layout and form. The message can be arranged in single or multiple columns and spaced effectively and attractively. Even the general newsletter can be personalized with a message from the principal set apart from other content in the publication. The tone of the publication should be warm and outgoing, informal, professional, and positive.

Conferences with Parents

Many excellent opportunities for cementing good relations between the school and the community come through conferences with parents. In

⁴ Virginia M. Burke, *Newsletter Writing and Publishing* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958).

⁵ Shorewood High School, Shorewood, Wisconsin.

these face-to-face relationships, many understandings can be made clear that could not be accomplished by any other means. In such situations, the principal or the teacher must first be a good listener—let the parent tell his story. Parents should be made to feel that they are invited rather than thwarted in seeking conferences on school matters. An effort should be made to try to see the situations from the parents' points of view and to help the parent to see the situation from the school's point of view. Many a troublesome situation that otherwise might grow into disproportionate significance and act as a barrier to a harmony of understanding can be talked out in a conference.

Another type of parent conference—the student-parent-teacher conference as a supplement to reports on student achievement—is rapidly gaining favor in secondary schools. In addition to the regular report cards, the homeroom teacher holds a scheduled conference once each semester with the student and parent relative to the academic and school citizenship progress of the student. The homeroom teacher gathers the general information about the student—grades in courses, special achievements, problems, general school citizenship, study habits, and the like—which is shared and discussed at the conference. Here the home, the school, and the student are brought together for a more harmonious and cooperative relationship with respect to the student's achievement and general welfare.

WORKING WITH THE GENERAL PUBLIC

There are many publics in the community that have little or no relationship to the schools. Yet these publics are counted upon to support the school function by way of taxes, building programs, referendums, and the like. Many of these publics have only limited ways of learning about the schools. A good program of public relations will take this into account, and through the use of the press, the radio, and general bulletins delivered to each residence provide all citizens with essential information about the schools. This cannot be accomplished by the secondary school alone, but the principal has a responsibility to work with the general public relations program for the school system in a manner that will make sure that the secondary school is included.

Space does not permit a full discussion of all the mechanics available or the techniques for working with all of the publics in the community. It seems reasonable, however, that the secondary school in the

community should take a significant responsibility in the general program of school-community relations by assisting in opinion polls, interpreting education to the people, and generally demonstrating some of the values of good schools. Secondary school students are young adults. As such, they can do much to demonstrate good community citizenship in and out of school.

WORKING WITH STUDENTS

Students are the basis of the secondary school and, as such, should assume definite responsibilities in the school-community relations program. Students are also a very important public to be considered in school-community relations. Assuming that this priority has been recognized and that in many ways the students represent the school in the community, it seems appropriate to consider the nature and amount of leadership that should *be given to student participation in public relations activities, and what students may do to assist in the program.*

Student Activities and Community Relations

Every student activity has public relations implications. Somewhere in the inservice training program for teachers this fact should be stressed. The principal must continually alert his staff to be aware of the impact of student affairs on the reputation of the school. Student loyalty to the school should be fostered and encouraged, but when this loyalty is carried to a point where students splash paint on the entrance of the rival school prior to the big game some leadership should be exerted. When students on trips behave in a manner that brings discredit to the school; when students disregard the rights of others in parking about the school and litter the yards and streets; when students cause trouble for merchants or become nuisances in hangouts, these student activities take on a negative value as far as *school-community relations are concerned.*

Experience indicates that leadership that works through and with students helping them to see their role in developing favorable relationships is most fruitful. For instance, the faculty sponsor working with the student council can do much to give leadership to the development of positive attitudes on the part of the student body toward fostering a favorable reputation for the school. The principal can do much with some words of encouragement and recognition of exemplary behavior on the

part of students and school groups. Students should feel that they are a part of the team in promoting goodwill for their school and they should take pride in upholding the good name of the institution of which they are an integral part. We know a coach who insists that the members of his team dress up and, as he puts it, "Look like men, not slouches, when we go on trips representing this school." This coach does not countenance malicious souvenir-gathering or other behavior that might undermine the reputation of his school. In all probability, the students under his guidance acquire an attitude very favorable to good public relations. As we have intimated here, it is a host of little things that students do or do not do that count in their participation in an over-all program of public relations. Schools are branded by the behaviors of their students and products.

Student Community Service

Student activities of various kinds, the things observed by the public about *the school*, have been mentioned briefly and the relation of such to school-community relations cited. However, there is one area in working with students in public relations that should not go unnoticed—community service. Many excellent community service projects have received their primary impetus from work carried on by secondary school students. It is not only the service projects that are carried on by students alone but the opportunities they provide for working with other elements in the community on service efforts that makes such activities worthwhile from a public relations point of view. Each time the school identifies itself through the students in some positive manner with elements of the community, opportunities unfold for creating goodwill and understanding.

THE IMPORTANCE OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Schools generally have lagged badly in developing sound programs of public relations. Invariably, when school administrators are asked to list their most pressing current problems, public relations lands near the top, along with finance and improvement of instruction. In reality, all three are closely related. Finance and quality of instruction are linked to the level of understanding and the values seen in education by the citizens. Although shortcomings in public relations efforts seems to have been generally admitted and recognized, far too few schools have attempted to do anything

There are no known gimmicks that alone spell success in the development of harmonious understandings and goodwill. This is not to say that tricks and ideas should not be used. To be effective such must be in the context of a well-defined program. In other words, there is no such thing as a single "cure-all" that will lift the public relations program by the bootstraps to a high level of effectiveness. Were this true many schoolmen would have seized upon it long ago. Only an orderly, well-conceived, and comprehensive program of school-community relations, one that integrates the tricks and the gimmicks with planned intelligent purposes, objectives, and formulated goals of a comprehensive program of lifting levels of understanding, winning support, and earning goodwill, can succeed.

Continuous Effort

Efforts in school-community relations are never-ending. Kindred lists four reasons for school-community relations programs: interpretation, correction, information, and promotion.⁶ These are continuous reasons, since schools have a constant turnover of those directly connected with it—students and parents.

The orientation of students and parents for the first year of high school is an annual event on the public relations calendar. Each crop of graduates sees another group taking its place next year. Each year finds new people in the community. Census tallies show that varying percentages of students move in and out of the school district and in and out of attendance units within the district.

There are two kinds of mobility; mobility through the program, and mobility of people in and out of the community. Still another mobility factor, which is becoming of increasing concern to many secondary school administrators, is that of serving several communities in new secondary school complexes. In other words, the secondary school becomes a community of communities and draws students from several neighboring natural communities. This has come about particularly in areas where small schools have been abandoned and new school districts established. Here we have mobility across natural community lines, and this social phenomenon must be considered in the new school public relations efforts.

The reasons for a continuous program of public relations cited thus far are rather obvious. Another reason, however, may be less apparent—the

⁶ Leslie Kindred, *School Public Relations* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957).

changing climate of opinion locally and nationally regarding education. The publication of a book, the work of a zealot with an idea of how education should be accomplished, or the scientific achievements of other nations can and does influence the thinking of many people with respect to the kind and quality of instruction desired in the secondary school. It is not enough for the principal to shake off indictments of secondary education by the simple statement, "It may be true in some high schools, but not in ours." This feeling must be shared by the constituents and this can be accomplished *only through a continuous effort of keeping the people informed as to what the school is, what it does, how it does it, and what it needs to do it.*

A SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS CHECKLIST

A very fine checklist on school-community relations has been developed by the American Association of School Administrators.⁷ The authors have adapted it to fit the concerns of the secondary school as follows:

Do you. . .

- See public relations as a two-way process—as a cooperative search for mutual understanding and effective teamwork between community and school?
- Try to establish favorable attitudes as well as opinions, and take into account the influence of both emotions and intelligence?
- Keep in mind that there are many publics to be served?
- Know and serve the interests of various publics in the community?
- Check the honesty and accuracy of interpretations of the information which goes out about the high school?
- Emphasize the positive approach in public relations?
- Present your ideas in simple, understandable, and accurate form?
- Have a friendly school in which the public regularly finds cordial welcome?
- Maintain working conditions and relationships that attract and hold competent school employees?
- Take into account the factors of mobility in student and parent populations in the public relations program?

⁷ *ABC's of School Public Relations* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1959).

- Provide adequate leadership to student efforts in school-community relations efforts?
- Encourage and work effectively with parents and parent groups in your school?
- Keep the public well informed through bulletins, newsletters, and reports?
- Help students to understand and contribute positively to community-school relations?
- Manage the business office of the high school in a way that commands respect and good will?
- Counterattack with *factual data and evidence* when high school is unjustly attacked?
- Work closely with parents—P.T.A., advisory groups, parent conferences?
- Call to the attention of the central administration weaknesses in management that are known to have damaged or hindered school-community relations?
- Encourage employees to take an active part in community affairs?
- Stress the importance of every member of the staff in the public relations activities of the school?
- Have an effective training program of inservice training in school-community relations for all school employees?
- Have a policy of honesty, courtesy, and forthrightness in dealing with employees, the press, and the public?
- Believe that people can and will help to plan and support good schools when they understand the essential needs?
- Practice democracy in the exercise of your leadership functions?
- Interpret education as an investment in people?
- Look upon school buildings and sites as expressions of educational functions and purposes?
- Listen to complaints carefully, investigate the facts objectively, and seek to use them constructively?
- Assist in planning new buildings and manage the school plant in such a manner as to create public confidence and good will?
- Organize and plan routines to avoid misunderstandings, confusions, delays?
- Make effective use of available technical assistance from staff members, laymen in the community, and special consultants?

- Engage regularly in inservice activities to improve your skills in public relations?
- Merit community recognition because of your professional competence?
- Participate actively yourself as a member of key local, state, and national organizations in your field of professional interest?
- Recognize the public relations values of professional educational organizations?
- Systematically appraise your public relations efforts and effectiveness?
- Weigh your actions as to the positive or negative effects on public relations?
- Try to determine what might be newsworthy about your operations activities?
- Avoid playing any favorites in purchasing or other business transactions?
- *Work for general high morale in your department and your department's relation to other departments or segments within the school system?*
- Try to be sensitive about the public relations effect of your actions and activities?
- *See public relations as a definite part of your responsibilities?*
- Try to be a good listener?
- Recognize good human relations as a bulwark of morale?
- Try to explain things that might be difficult to understand?
- Have patience with those disturbed or disgruntled about something?

CONCLUSION

Community relations, school-community relations, and public relations have been used interchangeably throughout this chapter to indicate the harmony of understanding that exists between the high school and the publics it serves. There must be communication and an interchange of ideas and information in a manner that will develop understandings as to what the school is, what it does, how it does it, and what it needs to do the job.

The school deals with various publics, internal and external—stu-

dents, staff, parents, nonparents, civic groups, service groups, and other community publics. The chief responsibility for organizing and nurturing the school-community relations program lies with the principal. He must have the proper attitude toward public relations, knowledge of what constitutes an effective program, skills in public relations techniques, and a scholarly ability to know and analyze the community he serves. The principal sets the tone for the entire effort of the school in public relations.

Since the public identifies the teacher with the school, he is a very important contributor to school-community relations. Teachers become a part of the community and have opportunities for many face-to-face contacts through which they can interpret education and the local secondary school contributions. Students, likewise, play an important role in the public relations efforts. Leadership should be provided to assist students in developing a good reputation for the school and in establishing goodwill.

Good communication—two-way communication—is essential in the development of understandings. Conferences, bulletins, news letters, PTA organizations, the use of mass media, and other techniques are good practices utilized by many schools.

Finally, good school-community relations are important, particularly in view of the competition schools face with reference to engineering consent, broadening understandings, and creating goodwill. Full cooperation and wide involvement are essential. School-community relations is not a bag of tricks or gimmicks; it is program of continuous effort, intelligent planning, teamwork, and shared responsibility with wide involvement of everyone concerned.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. List and discuss the criteria by which you would judge a good school-community relations program.
2. Write a news story about a current educational event.
3. As a principal, write a letter to parents announcing a significant curriculum change in the secondary school program.
4. Cite illustrations of how students may assist in fostering goodwill and improved school-community relations.
5. Discuss the problems of working with parents in efforts to improve goodwill and better understandings about the schools and education.

6. Discuss the relative merits and values of open houses, demonstrations, exhibits, and other public school events for public relations.
7. Make a list of the publics that must be served by a secondary school of your acquaintance.

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chapter 10

UNIQUE TASKS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

ANY CONSIDERATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL administration would indeed be remiss if it failed to take into account the junior high school. In a period of fifty years, unique school provisions for early teenagers has become an accepted reality. As indicated by the name, this school has been positively identified with secondary rather than with elementary education.

The contents of this volume are generally relevant to both junior and senior high school administration. Nevertheless, modern developments point to the need for some special attention to the concept of the junior high school. This chapter presents a brief over-all view of the development of the transition school between the elementary and senior high school, and a concise treatment of the concepts underlying the junior high school, program and curriculum emphasis, the unique relationship of this special emphasis to the school organization, and some special administrative concerns of the junior high school.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The eight-grade elementary school is typically American, and little is known of the exact reasons for this form of organization. It developed in

the early 1800's, when American educators were studying Prussian education. It can be conjectured that it was an attempt to combine the *grundschule* (grades one through four) and the *mittel-schule* (grades five through eight). Most European school systems provide a break in the school organization, which comes around the child's tenth to twelfth birthday. In Denmark, the *Grundskole* ends with the fourth grade or age eleven; in France, the primary school for all takes the child through the fifth grade or through age eleven; in England, Johnny starts to school at five years of age and the junior school takes him through the first six grades and up to age eleven. Thus, there is a relationship between school organizational patterns and the age of the child, with the shift coming at approximately the onset of adolescence.

The early development of our elementary schools was not without variety. In the South, there were seven-year elementary schools; in New England, a nine-year elementary school; and in the rest of the country, an eight-year school.

Similarly, our secondary school pattern is typically American, beginning with the first four-year secondary school, the English High School, in Boston, in 1821. These schools were the genesis of what has come to be known conventionally as the 8-4 plan in American education.

Shortcomings of the 8-4 Plan

The 8-4 plan had achieved general acceptance in this country by 1900, except in the South and a few communities in New England, but already critics had begun to point out the shortcoming of the plan. Undoubtedly, part of the criticism came about as the result of fundamental oversights by the original planners, as pointed out by Gruhn and Douglas:

First, there is no evidence that the eight-year elementary school and the four-year high school were influenced in their origin and early development by any recognition of the nature of the physical, social, and psychological development of children. Second, the elementary and the secondary schools began as two entirely separate institutions; furthermore, throughout much of their early history there was little or no attempt to bring about satisfactory articulation between them.¹

Earliest criticisms came from representatives of colleges and universities, who were quickly joined by leaders in elementary and secondary

¹ William T. Gruhn and Karl R. Douglas, *The Modern Junior High School* (New York: The Ronald Press, 1956), p. 6.

education in investigations designed to improve the educational program below the college level. The period 1890 to 1910 provided a series of studies, conferences, and events that brought on the reorganization movement in upper elementary and secondary education, out of which developed the junior high school. Charles W. Eliot of Harvard University is credited with being among the first to call attention to some of the educator's concerns about the 8-4 plan by pointing out the fact that the plan made for late entrance into college—age 19 in 1885–1886. Eliot, in his lectures to educators, proposed to shorten the period of elementary and secondary education.

COMMITTEE OF TEN. In 1892, the National Education Association appointed a Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies. President Eliot served as chairman of the high school and college teacher group, which studied each major subject taught, "the proper limits of its subject, the best methods of instruction, the most desirable allotment of time for the subject, and the best methods for testing the pupils' attainment therein."² Although unintentionally, at least in the beginning, the Committee soon found itself looking at the organization of the entire school system.

Among the Committee's recommendations were the following:

1. Some material from such subjects as English, arithmetic, natural history, and geography be introduced as early as the primary grades.
2. Well-organized instruction in Latin be introduced at least a year earlier than was the custom.
3. German and French be offered as electives at the age of ten.
4. Systematic instruction in concrete or experimental geometry begin at the age of ten.
5. Elementary subjects and elementary methods be abandoned earlier.
6. Secondary-school period be made to begin two years earlier, leaving six rather than eight years for elementary school.

The Report of the Committee of Ten has not only been recognized as one of the great documents in the history of American education, but has had a profound influence on subsequent reforms and reorganizations of secondary education. Even though the proposals of the group were not immediately adopted, twenty years later they were reflected in the early programs of junior high schools.

² National Education Association, *Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies* (New York: American Book Company, 1894), pp. 3–7.

COMMITTEE OF FIFTEEN. In 1893, before the *Report of the Committee of Ten* was formalized, the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association appointed a Committee of Fifteen to investigate the organization of school systems, the coordination of studies in the primary and secondary schools, and the training of teachers. The work of this committee was directly related to the reorganization of elementary and secondary education. Although the *Committee of Fifteen* opposed any change from the 8-4 plan, it laid strong emphasis on better articulation between the elementary and secondary schools and the earlier introduction of some subject matter to ease the transition between elementary and secondary school. It is interesting to note that these two recommendations pointed directly to the basic junior high school philosophy to come just a few years later.

COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE ENTRANCE. In 1895, another committee of the Departments of Secondary Education and Higher Education of the National Education Association considered the question of better understandings between the high schools and the universities with respect to entrance requirements. Again, as with the *Committee of Ten*, this group looked at education in its entirety and in its report, in 1899, recommended a six-year high school program—the 6-6 plan.

In contrast with previous committees, the *Committee on College Entrance Requirements* presented a definite plan. Also, it presented some definite reasons for introducing subject matter earlier. Among these were the following:

1. Introduction of subject matter should be related to child development.
2. The transition from elementary to high school should be more gradual.
3. The 6-6 plan would serve to encourage greater retention of pupils in the upper grades.²

Arguments for the 6-6 Plan

Other significant developments toward reorganization of secondary education came with the appointment of a standing committee on equal division of time between elementary and secondary education in 1905 by the Department of Secondary Education and the work of the National

² National Education Association, *Report of the Committee on College Entrance* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1899).

Education Association standing committee on Economy of Time in Education.

Significant among the reasons set forth by the latter committee favoring the 6-6 plan were:

1. Pupils could be taught by teachers especially trained in the various subject fields.
2. Departmentalized instruction would give seventh and eighth grade pupils contact with several teacher personalities.
3. The 6-6 plan would make laboratories available so that science could be introduced earlier.
4. Manual training shops would be made more readily available to upper-grade pupils.
5. Modern languages could be begun earlier.
6. The transition from elementary to secondary school would be less abrupt.
7. More pupils would likely go on into the ninth grade.
8. The equal divisions would make the schools more like the European schools.
9. The six-year secondary school would give the pupil more time to prepare for college.
10. The expansion of the high school program to six years would allow the introduction of some new courses.
11. The 6-6 plan would permit certain economies of time.
12. The 6-6 plan would allow for more flexibility.
13. The plan would more nearly meet the educational needs of youth in relation to their developmental patterns—socially, physically, emotionally, and academically.
14. Better provisions would be available for exploration experiences to meet individual needs and interests.
15. Better individualization of instruction would be made available.
16. Better articulation between elementary and secondary education would be made possible.

Early Departures from the 8-4 Plan

In the preceding pages we have seen the bases and gradual development of a rationale for reorganization of secondary education. Implementation of the ideas on reorganization moved slowly. In 1911, Bunker reported that a survey of 669 cities revealed that only 24 had introduced any departure from the traditional 8-4 plan.⁴

⁴ Frank F. Bunker, *Reorganization of the Public School System*, United States Office of Education, Bulletin No. 8 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1916), p. 101.

Table 5. Per cent of secondary school enrollments in various types of school organization plans

| Year | Regular (four years) | Junior High (three years) and Senior High (three years) | Junior- Senior High (six years) | Total |
|------|-------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|-------|
| 1920 | 83.4% | 2.8% | 13.8% | 100% |
| 1930 | 50.9 | 30.3 | 18.8 | 100 |
| 1938 | 43.5 | 32.1 | 24.4 | 100 |
| 1946 | 38.5 | 35.4 | 26.1 | 100 |
| 1952 | 25.2 | 39.7 | 35.1 | 100 |

Source: United States Office of Education, *Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955).

ance, differentiation, integration, socialization, articulation, and providing a climate of learning and experiences for the early adolescent learner. Even those who claim that there is little justification for the junior high school functionally and psychologically admit that the problem of developing a satisfactory curriculum for early adolescence remains. Any school organization should encompass the general functions and purposes ascribed to the junior high school as a matter of good education. However, if there is a uniqueness about education at the early adolescent level, which there apparently is, it lies in the provision of an administratively convenient organization in and through which the curriculum problems can be brought into sharp focus and dealt with in a manner that best meets the needs of youth.

The arguments for and against the various forms of reorganization of secondary education are left to the reader. The plans of widest acceptance appear to be the 6-6, the 6-3-3, and the 6-2-4 plans. Such factors as local conditions, size of school population, housing requirements, economics, staffing problems, specialized community need, and the educational philosophy of the locale seem to us to be the chief determinants of the organization pattern for secondary schools. All things being equal, very serious consideration should be given to the 6-6 plan of organization. However, local conditions, particularly in large cities, often favor the 6-3-3 plan. Regardless of plan or organization, the significant phases of child development and the educational provisions attendant thereto, particularly articulation, must be provided for in an effective program of instruction.

BASIC CONCEPTS

Preceding chapters in this volume make insistent demands for quality in secondary education. Quality has been defined as excellence in the school program, characterized by a curriculum that makes possible, and teaching and guidance that make real, the promise of educational opportunity for each pupil. The junior high school or the beginning phases of secondary education take on tremendous importance in setting the pace and providing a climate that will nurture high quality educational experiences throughout the secondary school program.

Considerations leading to a recognized need for reorganization of secondary education eventually led to the development of basic concepts for the junior high school. The traditional 8-4 plan proved to be inadequate in several details, and some other plan or organization was obviously necessary to provide more effective and efficient educational experiences and instruction on the early adolescent level. It must be assumed, then, that some basic concepts, agreed upon and implemented in educational practice, *undergird the provisions for junior high schools. We shall examine a few of the most important concepts here, recognizing that there are other general educational concepts applicable to the over-all tasks of providing effective instruction to youth at all levels and under all organizational patterns.*

Flexibility

A basic concept in the realistic junior high school organization is that it provides a flexibility for the educational program not normally found in the traditional 8-4 organization. The developing of a satisfactory curriculum, providing for individual differences, guidance, and exploration, along with meeting the needs of early adolescence, integration, and articulation demand a degree of flexibility not usually found in the traditional elementary or high school.

Flexibility poses some interesting problems in practice. Too many junior high schools are merely downward extensions of the senior high school or, in other instances, upward extensions of the elementary school. Either case defeats the flexibility necessary for a good junior high school program. In other instances, the junior high school imitates the senior high school to such an extent that it loses sight of its original purposes and objectives. Likewise, in some schools operating on the 6-6 plan, the junior high school is totally dominated by the operational patterns geared to the

senior or upper three grades of the high school. These pitfalls must be avoided and the junior high recognized for its uniqueness if flexibility is to be sustained and implemented.

There is convincing evidence that education in the future will be different. Many interesting efforts and developments form the bases for change. Earlier introduction of foreign language instruction, new concepts of use of time, new uses of technological aids to teaching, the uses of instructional resources, including teachers, increased emphasis on science and mathematics instruction, and a new look at instruction in the humanities are but a few of the innovations that appear to have lasting value and that require flexibility in thought and deed.

Continuity

Scenarists have a penchant for continuity; the scenes must hang together to make an unbroken, coherent whole. Each scene must have internal and external continuity, coherence within the scene itself and coherence of the scene with what came before and what comes after. In education, we are striving for much the same thing. An educational organization should provide as nearly as possible a smooth ramp of experiences, geared to the needs of youth and the goals and purposes of education at all age levels. Any sharp breaks create problems of transition, time lags, problems in articulation, instruction, that is out of synchronization with the imperative needs of youth at various stages of development, and other hurdles that impede progress and stand in the way of quality education.

The junior high school, as an organizational innovation, properly conceived, was originated to improve continuity both in the educational program and in its relatedness to the growth and development patterns of youth. It is a means of providing, through organizational structure opportunities, programs that will assist youth in making a satisfactory adjustment to adolescence and to developmental objectives with a maximum of effectiveness and a minimum of frustration. It is necessary, then, to consider the junior high school program with relation to what comes before it and what comes after it.

Internal continuity in a junior high school program is quite another matter. Many schools, unhappy with structuring students into curriculum patterns, have through guidance assisted students to develop programs with a high degree of individuality in terms of a variety of goals and interests. This is an ideal situation, except that more than usual care must

be taken to provide continuity internally in the junior high school program and externally with what the student may want and what is available to him in the senior high school curriculum. Some of these innovations must assume some flexibility on the senior high school level to be fully successful. For example, in the Pascack Valley Regional High School, Hillsdale, New Jersey, secondary education is not divided into course patterns such as academic, business, or general curriculum. Instead, each student is expected to develop a program of studies that relates to his abilities, interests, and life work plans.

Continuity for its own sake may easily be a deterrent to the best program for the individual student. Schedules, timetables, loads, patterns, and the like, found in some schools, tend to build hurdles rather than remove such for fluid program building. Students are occasionally "blocked out" of courses in their well-planned sequences simply because they cannot get them into their schedules; the excuse being, "Your course request just does not fit our planned and necessary continuum of subject offerings." Some of this is bound to happen in even the best-run high schools, but much more imagination might be exercised in this regard than has been demonstrated heretofore.

Peer Culture Intensification

As far back as biblical times man has recognized the concept of change and the "turning point" that comes at adolescence. Psychologists and physiologists have supplied us with evidence of the nature of this change. Sociologists have described the cultural changes that take place at the junior high school age. This growth process is continuous, but there are certain modal points readily recognizable.

A basic concept in any consideration of the junior high school is the recognition of the intensification of peer culture at adolescence. The appreciation and understanding of its many manifestations are enhanced by the several résumés of the imperative needs of youth, including Havighurst's Developmental Tasks of Adolescence. These are as follows:

1. Achieving new and more mature relations with age mates.
2. Achieving a masculine or feminine social role.
3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively.
4. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults.
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence.
6. Selecting and preparing for an occupation.
7. Preparing for marriage and family life.

8. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.
9. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to living.⁵

Three major concepts have been highlighted here that have special relevance to the administration of the junior high school: flexibility, continuity, and intensification of peer culture. Obviously, there are other basic concepts that apply to the junior high school and to education in general. The major functions of the junior high school described earlier are actually symbols of basic concepts. The purpose of this brief treatment of concepts has been to emphasize the unique aspects of the junior high school, its functions, its importance in meeting the needs of youth at a particular age level, its relationship to what comes before and after, and some of its implications for the over-all instructional program.

PROBLEMS OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

One approach to the consideration of the problems of curriculum and instruction in the junior high school is through a review of the principles upon which the school was originated. Briefly, something had to be done to remedy the "drop-out" situation in the seventh and eighth grades. Children needed more assistance in making the transition between elementary and high school (articulations). A better planned program of instruction appeared necessary to assist the child in obtaining more meaning out of subject matter and in utilizing these learnings in the development of his own personality (integration). The child needed more experiences that would be helpful to him in the selection of future courses and to get along in high school (exploration). The student needed assistance and counsel in the selection of courses and electives as well as in the selection of a possible vocational pursuit (guidance). Students at the critical early stages of adolescence needed experience and assistance in making adjustments to social situations and in establishing value patterns and ethics (socialization). Lastly, a suitable program was needed to provide for the individual differences among students.

These principles, translated into performance, became the conventional functions of the junior high school, the elements to be implemented through curriculum and instruction. The holding power of the school, an early concern of the junior high school movement, has in the

⁵ Robert J. Havighurst, *Human Development and Education* (New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1953), pp. 2 and 111.

main been erased by compulsory education laws. The day is long past, too, when the junior high school is considered to be the terminal educational experience for a large segment of youth. A brief but comprehensive view of the evolution of the junior high program is found in Chapter I of Gertrude Noar's *The Junior High School Today and Tomorrow*.⁶ This work indicates some of the changes that have taken place and projects possibilities for the future. Although written prior to the current emphasis on and pressure for a more rigorous instructional program all through school, many of Miss Noar's suggestions deserve attention in planning for today's curriculum and instruction in the junior high school. Upon careful assessment, most authorities appear to agree that the school's program of instruction should implement the functions of integration, exploration, guidance, differentiation, socialization, and articulation.

Staff Potential

To accomplish the purposes and objectives, the junior high school requires a staff of exceedingly high potential. Beginning with the principal, the personnel must have a thorough understanding and appreciation of the school's program, purposes, objectives, and philosophy. Student-centered instruction takes on a very special meaning in the years of transition from childhood to young adulthood. The teacher must not only understand this but feel comfortable in working with it in the learning situation. Practitioners have often commented that they get their best junior high school teachers out of an elementary teaching experience in the self-contained classroom rather than from the high schools. Why? Perhaps it is because the high school teacher, on the average, is apt to be more inclined to subject specialization and accustomed to a more mature and sophisticated student. He is less experienced with the "block of time," "core," or "multiple period," which is usually a part of the junior high program. In addition, he has developed certain expectations of students somewhat beyond the junior high school level, and he has not developed or experienced the inclusive guidance approach so necessary in the junior high school. It would be an obvious error to generalize that high school teachers do not make good junior high school instructors. On the contrary, many of them do very well in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. The point is that the junior high school teacher has to have a combination of the finest attributes we have generally accorded to excellent elementary

⁶ Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953.

instructors along with those of the subject specialist senior high school teachers.

If curriculum change and improvement of instruction are to occur at all, they must take place in the classroom. Small classes, cooperatively conceived curriculum guides, excellent instructional equipment, and well-organized daily schedules are indeed helpful. However, an unimaginative teacher wedded to formal lecture-study-recitation routines, with the best of instructional aids, equipment, and conditions, has very limited possibilities for making any contribution to change and improvement of instruction. Such teachers merely use the modern conveniences to accomplish more easily the same job. It is the attitude of the teacher toward the tasks of instruction, the interest in boys and girls, the willingness to experiment, the disposition to evaluate constantly, the desire to contribute special talents and abilities, the desire to be a constructive member of the instructional team, and the wish to improve constantly that count in the school's efforts to change and improve the curriculum and instruction.

Role of the Teacher

Obviously, the role of the teacher in the modern junior high school is tremendously important. But how does the teacher assume this role? Where does the teacher start to become the effective staff member? Let us assume that the teacher has the proper attitudes, good training, the courage to try new things, imagination, and the desire to be effective as an instructor of youth.

One answer would be, "Begin with boys and girls, the members of your class." The authorities agree that teachers must begin with child study.⁷ The teacher must learn all she can about the individuals in her group—their likes and dislikes, differences and similarities, their interests, their frustrations, their amusements, their home lives, their aspirations, and any other information that will help to understand them better.

There are at least three good reasons for beginning with the study of children: to gain rapport, to understand their individual needs, differences, and potentials; and to acquire a basis for empathy. The teacher who has gained rapport with a group, who has come to understand each child with some degree of thoroughness, and who can imagine himself in the

⁷ See, for example, Daniel Prescott, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1945); and Gertrude Noat, *The Junior High School Today and Tomorrow* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953).

child's situation has come a long way in establishing himself as a guide and teacher. A primary role of the junior high teacher, then, is that he be a student of human nature and development, particularly of the adolescent.

ROLE SPECIALIZATION. There is developing gradually an increased use of specialized talent on the junior high school staff. Special service staff personnel are required for guidance, home visitations, psychological assistance, health services, activity coordination, and other program requirements in the modern junior high school.

Opportunities for specialized talent in many phases of the instructional program are equally obvious. Increased use of the new instructional aids, such as closed-circuit television, call for personnel trained in mass presentation. Study laboratories call for people skilled in the techniques and use of recording, taping, viewing, listening, self-testing and other devices that will eventually become a part of every good school. Needs for skilled and inspiring teachers of art, music, dramatics, and other special interest and activity areas will also call for staff role specialization.

MOTIVATORS. We are constantly learning more and more about learning. The chances are good that we will continue to discover new things about the process of perceiving more intensively and extensively.* The heart of education is learning, and the teacher's role is to stimulate, to encourage, and to make that learning possible.

The most important essential for learning is motivation. As a motivator, the teacher must assume the role of marshaling and arranging conditions for effective learning. Tyler lists the following nine conditions under which effective learning takes place:

1. Motivation.
2. Dissatisfaction on the part of the learner with previous ways of reacting.
3. Guidance of learner's efforts.
4. Adequate and appropriate instructional materials.
5. Time.
6. Satisfying experiences.
7. Practice and drill.
8. Establishing new objectives, goals, and purposes.
9. Evaluation—judging one's own performance.

* See Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Learning More About Learning* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1959).

10. Employing the findings of evaluation for improving succeeding performances.⁹

RESOURCE MANAGERS. Teachers are managers of all resources that bear on learning. The teacher's job is not only a matter of acquiring resources but of effectively managing the resources at hand. The imaginative teacher enlists the assistance of the students in providing resources and does not overlook the many community resources for enriching instruction. The role of management includes three kinds of resources: human, material, and time, each of utmost importance to effective learning.

GUIDANCE ROLE. Every teacher has a certain responsibility for guidance. This is particularly true at the junior high school level, where students are exploring widely in preparation for many vital decisions. Guidance is not something that can be relegated to the last ten minutes of the day, to scheduled sessions with the guidance counselor, or to the homeroom period. Every teacher contact should provide information and data that students can use in making strategic choices.

It is not necessary for every teacher to attain the excellence of a guidance counselor, but all teachers should be so guidance oriented as to work effectively with guidance specialists in the over-all guidance program for junior high school youth.

TEAMWORKERS. The nature of the junior high school experience, being partly that of the self-contained classroom and partly that of differentiated departmentalization, places a unique responsibility upon teachers for teamwork, staffings, committee work, conferences, and other aspects of staff cooperation.

Junior high school teachers must work with and contribute to the professional understandings of teachers in the elementary and the senior high school divisions. This teamwork is, of course, a mutually shared responsibility of teachers on all levels. However, the junior high school teacher is in a pivotal position as regards articulation, guidance, and differentiation functions, all so closely related to the adjustment requirements of the early adolescent.

Other Considerations

The role of the teacher has been briefly touched upon here with particular reference to the unique functions of the junior high school. Being a stu-

⁹ Ralph W. Tyler, "Conditions for Effective Learning," *NEA Journal*, August 1959, p. 47.

dent of child development, a motivator of learning, a guide and counselor, a manager of resources, and a skilled professional teamworker are aspects of the teacher's role that are valued at all levels of instruction, but they are particularly pertinent to the junior high school staff member.

Perhaps there is no such thing as a typical junior high school staff, but observations indicate some commonalities, such as approximately even distribution of men and women on the staff, a high per cent of experienced, mature teachers, a majority or near majority of married staff members with children of their own, teachers with four or more years of professional training, and teachers with a high interest in professional and community affairs and organizations.

Plato defined teachers as torchbearers—"Those having torches will pass them on to others." Others have called teachers artists, conscious of their purposes, aware of the conditions with which they work, able with creative ingenuity to work in many ways to stimulate students and guide them on to their destinies.

*There are many good indications that we are on the threshold of increasing teacher prestige and developing new concepts of the significance of the teacher's role in education. Better preparation, greater professionalism, and increasing numbers of competent teachers are making tremendous contributions to better understandings about the status, expectations, and functions of professional workers in education. For a more complete discussion of the role expectancies of teachers held by students, parents, peers, the community, and the school itself, we suggest a careful review of Fourteenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society, particularly Chapter 6.*¹⁰

ADMINISTRATION

If one were to compare the modern junior high school curriculum with that of the early junior high school programs, the surface similarities would probably be somewhat surprising; yet beneath the surface many changes have taken place. Early efforts of program development held quite closely to the traditional subject-matter areas, to the content found in the 8-4 plan. Some educators feel that the changes that have been made are mainly in administrative organization with relatively little change in curriculum requirement. Emphasis has been placed on the

¹⁰ Lindley J. Stiles, *The Role of the Teacher in Modern American Society*, Fourteenth Yearbook of The John Dewey Society (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957).

mechanics of providing better articulation, differentiation, and recognition of the needs of the junior high school age group. In the process of implementing these functions, changes evolved in the kinds of experiences thought to be most appropriate for accomplishing the desired ends. Where the early programs were almost devoid of the student activities experiences, modern junior high school programs require them. The evolving concerns about human relations, group processes, and thought processes have brought about further changes in the curriculum. The "core curriculum," the "block of time," "problem identification and solution," "research activities," and the "multiple-period" concepts as means of improving the junior high school curriculum have been developed.

Space does not permit a comprehensive treatment of the junior high school curriculum here. It is sufficient to note its present stage of development, the significant trends, and some of the potential problems related to the administration of the future junior high school curriculum.

Then and Now

When one of the first junior high schools, that in Columbus, Ohio, opened its doors in 1909, it offered the following program along more or less rigid subject-matter lines completely departmentalized:

Seventh grade: Reading, physiology and hygiene, spelling and writing, arithmetic, language, history, drawing, manual training, domestic science, physical culture, and music.

Eighth grade: Reading, spelling and writing, music, physical culture, drawing, arithmetic, physiology and hygiene, manual training, and domestic science.

Ninth grade: English, German, algebra, elementary science and physical geography, general history, history and government of Ohio, drawing, manual training, and domestic science. (English, algebra, and history and government of Ohio were required.)

Fifty years later, the same junior high school offered the following program:

Seventh grade: Self-contained classrooms (that include English, Ohio history and government, geography and earth science), mathematics, physical education, art, music, industrial arts, and home economics.

Eighth grade: English, American history, health science, and physical

education (all required); general language or foreign language, art, music, industrial arts, and home economics (electives).

Ninth grade: English, general science, mathematics, and physical education (all required); French, German, Latin, Spanish, general business, industrial arts, and home economics (one of which must be elected); typewriting, art, music, and dramatics (any of which may be elected).¹¹

At first glance, there does not seem to be much difference between the two programs outlined above; however, significant changes have taken place below the surface. The organization of the junior high school has changed materially: rigid course lines have been erased, course contents have been broadened substantially, courses have become more inter-related, self-contained classrooms for seventh grades have been added, and students take fewer subjects than formerly.

Other changes have been taking place in the high school curriculum, too, changes very much like those that have taken place in thousands of junior high schools in the past half-century. In recent years, very few students terminate their formal education with the eighth or ninth grade. The emphasis on vocational exploratory work has been modified to meet the new conditions. There has also been a shift in the handling of able learners. More attention is now being paid to programs for high achievers. Teacher attitudes toward students have shifted from viewing them as passive participants in the learning process, gaining knowledge chiefly through lecture and memorization, to active participants, through research, discussion, study, and making the goals of learning their very own. Subject matter is still valued highly, but efforts are made to relate subject matter to the needs and interests—in short, to the life—of the student. There has been, too, a tremendous impact of new instructional aids and materials that have helped to improve instruction and enriched the curriculum. Student activities that used to be labeled "extra" are now a planned part of the comprehensive program of student experiences.

Changes in physical plant have kept abreast of the program changes. The drab classrooms of yesteryear have come alive with exhibits, models, apparatus, charts, books, and other materials that motivate and encourage learning. Specialized rooms and laboratories for art, music, science, health, counseling, and many other learning activities are taken for granted in the modern junior high school. These changes did not

¹¹ Harold H. Eibling, *Our Junior High Schools*, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio, 1959.

occur by accident; they are the result of careful consideration and planning in the evolution of the educational program for the early adolescent.

Trends

Admittedly any effort to determine trends is somewhat speculative, particularly when it involves the content and organization of the evolving junior high school curriculum. Early beginnings saw the sharp departures from the conventional and traditional characteristic of any new venture. Sincere efforts were made to meet the needs of youth as then conceived. Surely, at a time when the junior high school education was considered more or less terminal for a major portion of youth the curriculum emphasis was somewhat different from what it is today. The advent of compulsory education laws extending to sixteen and eighteen years of age and the inclusion of the high school experience as a common minimum essential for all youth form the basis for yet other trends in the junior high school curriculum. Thus, the trends under consideration here have been subject to social, economic, educational, and cultural value factors since the inception of the junior high school.

A review of the literature and observation of actual practices indicate that the following trends in content and organization of the junior high school curriculum experiences are pertinent:

1. Increasing pupil participation in planning learning experiences. Students are encouraged to work with teachers, parents, and others in establishing goals and purposes of education and in planning activities and meaningful experiences to accomplish desired ends.
2. More guidance. The student-centered approach to education is being more systematically and scientifically implemented through testing, counseling, informing, and assisting students in making wise choices for themselves.
3. Greater inter-relation and coordination between various subjects. This is being accomplished in several ways—fusion of subjects, organization of subjects into broad fields, correlated subjects and courses, core courses, integrated courses, and the experience curriculum.
4. Greater flexibility in scheduling and utilization of time. This has taken on the form of blocks of time, multiple periods, additional periods in the school day, the inclusion of cocurriculum activities in the daily schedule, and extensions of the school year to include more days of instruction.

5. Large unit organization of course of study *with local, county, activities. Course of study materials and learning effort. Colleges seen and developed in more meaningful, larger with rough experi-*
6. More use of planned resource units. These are used in *rams. New as an addition to, or as modifications of, the traditional rams, uses study.*
7. More flexibility in the use of text materials. Less dependence *on class single texts, the use of multiple texts, greater use of reference, materials, and more adequate library facilities are some of the evi-*
8. Greater correlation of curriculum with life situations. More effort *dences of this trend.*
9. Effective use of community and outside resources. This has taken *is being made to relate learning experiences to the problems and life situations of the learner.*
10. More effort to prepare students for intelligent consumership and *the forms of extending classroom activities into the community, effective home life. Efforts are being made to deal with values in calling upon people in the community to assist in enriching the relation to consumption of goods and services, and values are learning experience, special projects, cooperation with youth being weighed in relation to home and family living.*
11. Increased stress on citizenship. More attention is being paid to *agencies in the community, school camping experiences, and the like.*
12. Realignment of college preparatory and vocational studies. *preparation for good citizenship, with stress on the responsibilities and obligations of a citizen.*
13. Fewer separate and differentiated curricula. This trend is noted in *Through better guidance, greater holding power, and planned programs through the twelfth grade, college preparatory and vocational course experiences are being tailored to the needs of individual students.*
14. Greater differentiation within curricula and courses. More and *fewer separate courses, tracks, and curricula, which formerly were more provisions are made for internal differentiation and exploration.*
15. More emphasis on general education. This is apparent in the *widely employed to provide differentiation and exploration.*
16. Greater differentiation within curricula and courses. More and *more provisions are made for internal differentiation within courses to provide for individual differences and interests.*
17. More emphasis on general education. This is apparent in the *increasing emphasis on general education and postulated needs common to youngsters for immediate and future use.*

As we have said before, picking trends is a speculative business. When is a trend a trend? How do you differentiate between a trend and

a practice? There have been a host of innovations in various junior high school practices throughout the country. Some have caught on; others have been discarded. Those that seem to have stood the test of time and have been generally copied and accepted by schools might be indicators of trends.

Most junior high school administrators and staffs are constantly besieged with temptation to copy the senior high schools. Junior high school students want to do the same things as the older students. Probably in some junior high schools copying the high school amounts to a trend, although in practice this is not a direction in which most schools would want to go.

Practices that may easily be trends are the introduction of more foreign languages, the teaching of foreign languages earlier, greater emphasis on science instruction, more mathematics offerings, greater emphasis on music and art, more and better provisions for the atypical learner, greater attention to character education, and assistance to the students in the development of a system of values.

ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

Few, if any, opportunities in school administration offer greater challenges to leadership than does the junior high school principalship. The principal is the leader in all of the school's internal and external relationships, activities, functions and responsibilities. He relates himself to the management of learning through staff leadership, community relations, teamwork with peers and central office staff, relations with students and parents, and the climate of opinion he helps to create and foster in his school. He is a teacher of teachers and a manager of all resources that have a bearing on instruction and learning.

Opportunities for Creativity

A large number of junior high schools in all sections of the country are engaged in creating modern programs. Teacher-pupil relations and contacts are being studied. Scheduling is being examined in attempts to provide more time for the student with a single teacher. New ventures in meeting student needs are being tried. Subject-matter barriers are being broken down through adventures with common learnings, core curriculum, units, problems approach, laboratory techniques, and other imagina-

tive devices and concepts. Research is being carried on with local, county, state, and regional administrative units cooperating in the effort. Colleges and universities are contributing to the creative effort through experimentation, research, consultative services, and training programs. New ventures in guidance, provisions for the gifted, extended classrooms, uses of community resources, school-community relations, class and nonclass activities, and space utilization are to be found in many schools. Truly, there are opportunities galore in the junior high school for the administrator with vision, courage, imagination, and the will to do vanguard thinking and exploring.

This creativity is needed and welcomed. Everyone, even the arch critic of education, favors improvement. Teachers want to do their jobs more effectively and with greater efficiency. Creative improvements in education, however, are not the result of accident or chance. Attitudes have to be changed, understandings developed, new philosophies formulated, new skills perfected, trial runs executed, evaluations made, and new patterns of action established. All these require administrative leadership, a challenge and opportunity for the junior high school principal.

Helping Teachers Gain New Understandings

Every good administrator knows that in order to effect change he must begin with attitudes. Let us imagine that the principal feels that the conventional basis of grouping of students in elective activities (levels of achievement) is inadequate and that more attention should be given to the much neglected factor of intensity of purpose. How should he proceed? Surely, he could put through an executive order that beginning next Monday grouping for elective student activities will be based on two factors, levels of achievement and intensity of purpose. This is the poorest way to effect sound change. A wise principal wants his staff to assess the situation with regard to grouping and to arrive at understandings that will cause teachers to want to include intensity of purpose as a factor in grouping. He is convinced of the value of the idea, and his convictions are supported by his readings of material such as the ASCD report.¹²

Discussion, study, and group action on the problem is what the principal wants to achieve. These things precede changes in attitude, changes in philosophy, and new approaches to situations. The principal must arrange and provide leadership for group discussion and thinking

¹² Kimball Wiles and Franklin Patterson, *The High School We Need* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1959).

about this or any other problem related to new staff understandings. He also must be prepared to meet the usual roadblocks to progress—tradition, the aversion to the possibility of more work, and the normal reluctance to try anything new. Three fundamental steps are necessary in the process: (1) By a variety of means he must make the problem clear to the group. (2) Through discussion, appraisal, and evaluation of the situation, he must show the group that there is a good solution to the problem. (3) He must demonstrate clearly that good will result to the staff members and to students if the derived solution to the problems is implemented in practice.

Helping Teachers Implement New Understandings

Too often, the principal's role weakens at the implementation level. His teachers have assumed new attitudes and are ready to make changes only to find that problems of mechanics, scheduling difficulties, and the like impede the desirable actions. Here is where the principal has a role in helping teachers to attain new skills, to make adjustments, and to "put the show on the road." His first task is to clear the way for change and provide the necessary resources to implement the change agreed upon. Then skills must be given attention, developed, shared, demonstrated, and refined.

Big change is sometimes difficult to achieve all at once. Often small beginnings must be made with one section, one class, or with one activity. These become models to be studied, appraised, and evaluated. Then another effort is made, sometimes with minor modifications. Perhaps more trials and new models must be studied until satisfactory implementation is finally attained. All of this calls for leadership from the principal.

Helping New and Experienced Teachers

Junior high school principals constantly face the task of working with new and experienced members of their staffs. A special phase of working with the new teachers is orientation to the school, its philosophy, goals, practices, and operations. The principal should have a systematized and organized program of orientation for his new staff members. He cannot do this alone; he must enlist the services of other staff members in the process. One very helpful practice is the inclusion of "freshmen" teachers from last year on a staff committee dealing with orientation. These people

have first-hand knowledge of some of the problems they faced as new teachers in the system a year ago and can be most helpful in programing experiences that will aid new staff members in making a satisfactory adjustment to the school.

Orientation is usually thought of as the teachers' initiation to the school system, but new teachers also need inservice education. In fact, the inservice education program should be a natural outgrowth of the orientation experience. Too many times teachers are introduced to their new jobs and then are more or less forgotten and neglected. Naturally, they want to become identified with inservice education efforts such as staff committees, study groups, special project groups, and the like, but new teachers often have peculiar problems related to their inexperience in the situation. Many of them have special interests and talents that should be discovered and exploited for the good of the school. Some may have special abilities that they seek to develop further. The alert principal will be mindful of these things and arrange for special attention to inservice education for new staff personnel.

Inservice education for experienced staff members is another aspect of the principal's role and responsibility. *The principal must know his staff. Only by thorough acquaintance with various members of his staff can the principal hope to appreciate individual and common concerns, needs, interests, and capabilities. Problems and points of dissatisfaction need to be discovered. Problem areas are often a good place to start with inservice education. When these are satisfactorily handled, projects of a wider and more involved nature can be undertaken. Professional study can be initiated. A professional library can be accumulated and added to with new materials about areas of immediate concern and study. Consultative services can be obtained to assist in study efforts, and resource persons obtained to share ideas with groups of faculty members.*

Interpretation and Communication

The principal must be an interpreter and communicator. The school leader must continuously interpret the operation of the school and the processes employed in terms of their relations to what goes on in the classroom. He must be able to do this for staff, parents, the public, and students. Likewise, the operation of the junior high school must be interpreted to the elementary schools from which it draws its students and the high school to which it sends them. This aspect of the junior high school

principalship is unique. All such communication and interpretation is not necessarily done by the principal himself, but he is responsible for seeing that it takes place. For instance, joint meetings of sixth grade teachers with junior high school staff members can assist the latter to obtain more detailed information about incoming students and explain the junior high school program to the teachers preparing students for the experience. Meetings with parents of sixth-graders can clear up problems of articulation and assist parents in understanding the transition. This is often done with parents of ninth-graders as the student passes on into senior high school. In other words, the principal should use every means at his command to provide channels for communication and arrangements for lifting levels of understanding.

The public relations aspects of the role of the junior high school principal are somewhat unique also. If the school faces a particular problem with the growth and development of the early adolescent, then so do the homes from which they come and the communities in which they live. The principal will want to work in close cooperation with the PTA, youth agencies, and all other forces in the community dealing with the junior high school age group. Through these media he may be able to communicate the needs and aspirations of the school and correlate them more closely with other efforts of a similar nature. Occasions should be arranged where pupils, parents, and teachers can get together to share, clarify, plan, evaluate, and study activities and possibilities for better cooperation.

Organization and Coordination

Organization can either enhance or impede the success of an operation. Organizational and coordinating abilities are legitimate expectations in the junior high school principal. In fact, this level often demands a certain expertness in these skills not always demanded in other levels of the school system. The very nature of the junior high school program raises particular problems with regard to organization and coordination. There is self-contained and departmental instruction going on at the same time in the same school. The principal must see that the philosophy of the school finds expression in the schedule, in-class and out-of-class experiences are scheduled, and reasonable coordination exists to avoid unnecessary conflicts and interruptions. Some of the factors that must be taken into consideration are: building facilities, number of teachers in relation to rooms, nature of program offerings, variations in programs by grade levels, time

allotments for various experiences and activities, capacities of various rooms for small and large group activities, number of periods to be included in the school day, student mobility and traffic during class changes, and many other factors that may have a relationship to the local situation. In many situations, before and after school activities are conditioned by school bus schedules. With the growth of larger administrative units it is likely that this factor will take on increasing importance.

Scheduling students under a traditional program presents some difficulties in avoiding conflicts, figuring loads, providing for differentiation, and making the best use of staff time; but organizing blocks of time, multiple periods, and staggered daily programs throughout the week, as called for in the modern junior high school program, demands ingenuity, imagination, and coordination. The Secondary School Association of Principals has suggested dividing the junior high school day into three parts—personal interests, common learnings, and health and physical fitness.¹³ In a six-period day, two periods would be used for personal interests, three periods for common learnings, and one period for health and physical fitness.

The seventh grade, with its partially self-contained classroom program, and the ninth grade, where specialization sets in to coordinate with the senior high school, present special problems. Eighth-grade programming is usually a variation of the seventh-grade, having more in common with this grade than with the ninth. Then, there is the matter of time requirements for various subjects at different grade levels. There are some constants, to be sure, such as time for gymnasium periods, and perhaps one or two other subject areas, depending on the local situation, but beyond these the per cent of time for various subjects at differing grade levels is directly related to the nature of the instructional program. Where the modified core is employed a block of time is designated for what otherwise might be used for English, social studies, science, and guidance, or some modification of this combination. This means that departmentalization has to be broken down for many of the subject areas, with corresponding effects on scheduling and coordination problems. Barriers between subject areas must be lowered and the learnings fused, integrated, and correlated without loss of values contributed by each subject.

Staff utilization presents its own problems in organization and coordination on the junior high school level. Often the principal is faced

¹³ National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Planning for American Youth* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1944), p. 32.

with having to use a teacher in a dual capacity, core program or a block of time for seventh and eighth grades and specialized subject teaching on the ninth-grade level. These, along with the normal complications of staffing a program, call for the highest order of competence on the part of the principal and his staff in effective planning and organizing.

The uniqueness of the role of the principal in the junior high school lies in the nature of the enterprise for which he assumes the leadership. He must possess the characteristics and competencies ascribed to a good principal in any school situation. However, the very complexity of the junior high school organization gives rise to unusual opportunities for creativity and imaginative administration.

CONCLUSION

This chapter calls attention to an important phase of secondary school administration. No effort is made here to provide an exhaustive treatment of the junior high school. We have merely attempted to highlight some of the particular problems of the junior high school.

The reorganization movement in secondary education lead to the founding of the junior high school. At present, there are several plans of organization for the reorganized secondary education program. These vary according to purposes, objectives, and functions but all plans endeavor to implement the basic concepts that characterize the junior high school.

A clear relationship is seen between the major problems of curriculum and instruction and concerns about leadership and administration. The staffing problem, including careful definitions of the roles of the teacher and the principal, is of paramount importance. The junior high program, as described, is the product of an evolution and it continues to evolve. Several major trends have been examined. All of this, when related to the major tasks of the principal, points to the uniqueness of the principal's role at the junior high school level.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Trace the development of the reorganization movement in secondary education.
2. Compare the reasons postulated for reorganization originally with today's situation in education. Are all the reasons still valid? Why not?

3. Defend the functions of the junior high school.
4. Discuss the merits of the various plans of organization: 8-4, 6-6, 6-3-3, 6-2-4, 7-5.
5. Write an essay on the peculiar needs of the early adolescent student.
6. List the problems that you see arising between the junior high school and the elementary schools? The high school?
7. In what ways are the problems of administration different in the junior high school from those found in other divisions of the school system?

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part three

THE PERSON

PART THREE TAKES A LOOK at the administrator as a person. A major purpose of this book is to help the reader examine himself as a potential administrator. These two chapters pull together much of the research on the competencies required in administration and the process by which the individual can measure his own administrative potential. These separate areas are discussed in Chapter 11 and 12.

REQUIRED COMPETENCIES

WE HAVE EXPLORED THE JOB of the secondary school principal both in terms of general leadership and in terms of the specific tasks of the secondary school administrator. It is now time to consider the kind of person who is most likely to achieve success as a secondary school principal. It is impossible to describe a model person who will be a successful principal and to say that unless an individual fits this model perfectly, he cannot be a successful principal. It is, however, possible to describe the competencies that research and common sense reveal should be possessed by a secondary school principal. Such a description will help to clarify the nature of the job. Then, Chapter 12 will discuss the ways in which an individual can measure his personal potential for the principalship in terms of these competencies.

THE MEANING OF COMPETENCIES

There have been a number of attempts to relate personal abilities and attributes to potential success in some field of work. These personal abilities and attributes have been classified under various kinds of headings. This discussion uses the term "competency." In order to clarify the meaning of this term, it is necessary to start with the simpler term "trait,"

and show how the concept of competency has developed from the trait approach.

The Trait Approach

Early efforts to define leadership qualities relied heavily on the trait approach. For example, in 1929, Charters and Waples listed the twenty-five most important traits of teachers. They found such items as breadth of interest, good judgment, self-control, scholarship, self-confidence, and forcefulness to rank at the top.¹ The study made by Cowley also put such traits as self-confidence and conviction high on the list of the necessary personal equipment of leaders.² There have even been rumors that the tall man with a booming voice is predestined for administrative success, but Gibb's studies tend to discredit this report.³

The trait approach to defining leadership ability, then, involves bringing a set of measuring instruments to the man in isolation. If he registers sufficiently high scores in capacity, achievement, responsibility, sociability, and status, he is rated as a potentially successful administrator.⁴ If his scores are not high in these areas, his chances of success are rated poor. This approach has certain apparent deficiencies, which have led to the development of what we call the competency approach.

Competencies

The principal must not merely possess traits, but he must be able to use his traits as a leader in a variety of situations. The leadership behavior expected of a secondary school principal is much different, for example, from the leadership behavior expected of the leader of a criminal gang. This obvious fact led to studies of administrative behavior in school situations; and from these studies were developed descriptions of traits in action, that is, competencies. Thus, although intelligence is an important trait of a leader, the use to which this intelligence is put in leadership situa-

¹ W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929), p. 18.

² W. H. Cowley, "The Traits of Face-to-Face Leaders," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 26:310, 1931.

³ Cecil A. Gibb, "Leadership," in Gardner Lindzey (ed.), *Handbook of Social Psychology*, Volume II (Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley Publishing Company, 1954), pp. 884-885.

⁴ R. M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership," *Journal of Psychology* 25:64, January 1948.

tions is even more important. Although a good speaking voice is an important trait, what the voice says and when is even more important.

The competency approach does not abandon the trait approach nor does it imply a loss of faith in the importance of traits. What the competency approach does is to adapt the trait approach so that behavior is described and the behavior required in given situations pinpointed. A competency, then, is a factor that contributes to or is an integral part of effective administrative behavior. Competencies may include personal attributes, knowledge, understandings, or skills, but to be classified as a competency for a secondary school principal, each of these factors must be shown to be related to effective administrative behavior in a secondary school.

Administrative Behavior and Situational Factors

One of the primary reasons for the development of the competency approach to defining leadership abilities was the recognition of the fact that effective leadership behavior is often strongly influenced by the situation in which the leader finds himself. Two people with similar traits, for example, might find themselves assigned as secondary school principals, one in a large city school and one in a small rural school. In spite of a similarity of traits, one principal might succeed and the other fail, not because of some undiscovered differences in traits but because of differences in the situations in which the two men found themselves. The competency approach, which is related to behavior much more directly than is the trait approach, provides a better means of considering these situational influences upon administrative effectiveness than does the trait approach.

A wide variety of people and things make up the situation that influences administrative behavior. The natures of the community and its many publics, the board of education and the superintendent, the teaching staff and the noninstructional staff, and the student body, all influence the effectiveness of various kinds of administrative behavior of the principal. By the same token, the size, location, topography, and climate of the school district; the legal structure for education in the state and locality; the financial resources of the state and school district; and the established school organization and program in the school district and in a given school, all are nonhuman situational factors that influence the effectiveness of administrative behavior. For example, regardless of the

they can become successful leaders. Most people are in the middle ground, where they can, with sufficient motivation, develop competencies for leadership.

PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES

Remembering that a competency is a factor that contributes to or is an integral part of effective administrative behavior, let us first look at those competencies related to personal attributes. Most of these competencies contribute to effective behavior, but the mere possession of a given personal attribute is not in and of itself a predictor of effectiveness. The absence of these attributes, however, will make effective behavior difficult to realize.

Physical Characteristics

The secondary school principal's job is a physically demanding one. Long hours are the rule rather than the exception. It is apparent that effective administrative behavior requires that the principal possess reasonably good health and physical stamina.

In addition to health and energy, the principal also must consider his physical appearance. The leader with pronounced physical abnormalities is rare. So much of the principal's effectiveness depends upon successful person-to-person contacts that it is apparent that a normal physical appearance is helpful to the principal. Although there are obviously no weight, height, and "beauty" criteria that must be met by the successful principal, pronounced physical abnormalities will prove a definite handicap.

Mental Attributes

There seems to be no question but that there is a definite and positive relationship between intelligence and leadership ability. Here, again, however, a qualification is needed. The mere possession of above-average intelligence does not guarantee administrative success. It is the possession of intelligence plus its wise use in administrative situations that mark administrative effectiveness.

Secondary school teachers are generally of more than average intelligence. A principal's fellow administrators will also be of above-average intelligence. A principal, then, without mental quickness and the acuity

associated with good intelligence will be at a disadvantage as he works with these groups and with other community and professional leaders.

The problem in discussing intelligence is that little is known about the specific factors of intelligence. Such things as verbal facility, computational skill, memory, and spatial judgment are but a few of the components of intelligence. Insight, which is probably a factor of intelligence, is closely related to administrative effectiveness. However, knowledge of specific relationships between factors of intelligence and administrative skill or effectiveness is not now available. For the present, it must suffice to state that intelligence, whatever its components, is positively related to leadership.

An interesting point concerning intelligence has been revealed by a number of studies. Although specific quantitative data are not available, it seems that if a leader is a great deal more intelligent than are the members of the group he is to lead, his effectiveness is reduced. In other words, there may be upper limits of intelligence as well as lower limits for the effective administrator, depending upon the group with which he is to work.

Philip Smith developed a framework that he used to relate critical thinking and administrative effectiveness. He characterized the thinking of an effective administrator as follows:

Comprehensiveness:

Viewing particulars in relation to a large field.

Relating immediate problems to long-range goals.

Utilizing the power of generalization.

Maintaining tolerance for theoretical considerations.

Penetration:

Questioning what is taken for granted or is self-evident.

Seeking for and formulating fundamentals.

Utilizing a sensitivity for implication and relevance.

Basing expectations on an abductive-deductive process.

Flexibility:

Being free from psychological rigidity.

Evaluating ideas apart from their source.

Seeing issues as many-sided and developing alternate hypotheses, viewpoints, explanations, etc.

Maintaining a tolerance for tentativeness and suspended judgment.*

* Philip C. Smith, *Philosophic Mindedness in Educational Administration*, School Community Development Study Monograph Series, No. 5 (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Press, 1956), pp. 30-31.

It is apparent that Smith's statement represents intelligence in action. Although intelligence is required to meet the demands of this statement, the demands are for a particular use of intellect rather than for a particular measured level of intellect. This is the basic difference between intelligence as a competency and intelligence as a trait.

Social Personality Attributes

We use the term "social personality" to refer to a person's reaction pattern to the social scene. The social personality is influenced by all of the attributes that have been and will be discussed in this chapter, but the social personality as a separate entity is revealed by an individual's reaction pattern.

The primary requirement in this area is balance. The extreme extrovert is not more advantageously endowed than is the extreme introvert; and both have less potential for administrative effectiveness than does the individual nearer the center of the introversion-extroversion scale. Both the very aggressive and the very meek are less likely to succeed than is the more balanced individual.

The leader is one who possesses originality and adaptability. These attributes are closely related to the element of flexibility. The secondary school principal may deal in succession with a gifted science teacher, a student of low academic ability and a high level of troublemaking, a community leader, and a troubled parent. Each of these individuals calls for a different approach. Stereotyped behavior on the part of the principal can be disastrous. He must adapt to situations, and this requires originality in thinking and in acting.

The principal also needs to possess initiative and ambition. Although unbridled personal ambition can lead an individual to become a dictator, a measure of personal ambition is a necessary attribute of a principal. This needs to be an ambition to contribute as well as an ambition to succeed. Unless a secondary school principal has a clearly developed concept of the success he wishes from life, the contribution he wishes to make to life, and the ways in which he wishes to reach these goals, his actions will probably be less effective than they could be. Then, of course, he needs to possess the initiative that leads him to do more than to talk about his ambitions.

Another important social personality attribute of the principal is his disposition. A principal needs to have a sense of humor and an even

disposition. A disposition in which periods of intense moodiness or temper flare-ups are rare is a valuable asset to any leader. The principal's task involves working with people and an even disposition makes this much easier.

Although there is no extensive research in the field of the relationships between social personality and effective service as a principal, there is some evidence that confidence and self-assurance and gregariousness are helpful attributes—again, if not carried to extremes. In general, the best social personality pattern a principal can possess is one in which balance, an absence of extremes, is present. There are, of course, exceptions to this statement, but the preponderance of evidence, both from research and from common sense consideration of the problem, is that the effective principal tends to be a balanced person.

Character Attributes

Character attributes are those elements of an individual's behavior about which a society tends to have definite value judgments. We do not say that it is "good" or "bad" to have a sense of humor, but we do have such feelings about, say, honesty. It is unlikely that a lengthy discussion of character attributes and effective administrative leadership is necessary. School personnel are expected by a community to be of good character. The principal of a school is often in the public eye, and character deficiencies will decrease his effectiveness markedly. This good character must be more than a façade. The principal needs an underlying set of values, a philosophy of life, which leads him to act with good character. Otherwise, his actions may lack consistency, and he may be faced with indecision or confusion with regard to moral or ethical problems.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

The secondary school principal will certainly possess a bachelor's degree and often will have earned one or more advanced degrees. The formal education necessary to earn these degrees should have led to the development of many skills and understandings that are necessary parts of the competency pattern of the principal. In addition, this educational experience should have provided a number of opportunities for the prospective principal to work with people in a variety of situations.

Undergraduate Education

The formal education of the secondary school principal at the undergraduate level should provide him with knowledge about such things as the following:

1. Child growth and development—particularly at the adolescent stage.
2. Methods of teaching.
3. Curriculum development.
4. Group processes.
5. Teaching aids.
6. Counseling and guidance.
7. Educational tests and measurements.
8. The aims of education.
9. Community sociology.
10. Social values and beliefs in a democracy.
11. Human behavior.
12. Governmental structure in the United States.
13. Economic systems.
14. General legal structure in the United States.⁷

In addition, the prospective secondary school principal, in first preparing himself to be a secondary school teacher, will have gained mastery of at least one field of knowledge as a teaching area. Also, he should have a number of courses in education, so that he has the broad educational background that will enable him to perform the role of a community educational leader. Certainly, skill in the written and oral use of English is an important outcome of this educational program for the principal.

It should be apparent that the principal should first become broadly educated and only then turn toward a specialty in educational administration. There is some evidence that a good academic standing indicates leadership potential. This is not necessarily so, but it confirms the point that applied intelligence and leadership potential are positively related.

Coupled with the learnings that the prospective principal gains in the college classroom are some important understandings that he should gain from college life. The principalship is a leadership position. One of

⁷ Adapted from Southern States Cooperative Project in Educational Administration, *Better Teaching in School Administration* (Nashville, Tenn: McQuiddy Printing Company, 1955), pp. 125-177.

the best ways to prepare for such a position is to engage in leadership activities. While an undergraduate, the prospective principal will have a number of opportunities to engage in student activities, as a participant and as a leader. Although research on this point is limited, the undergraduate records of successful secondary school principals reveal that these people tended to assume leadership in at least one student activity and often participated in a wide variety of such activities. Undergraduate learning, then, should not be restricted to "book learning."

Graduate Education

It is at the graduate level that the prospective principal begins to learn the specialized skills of secondary school administration. Although we have stressed certain physical and personal attributes of a principal and have mentioned a broad, general educational background, the principal also needs to have at his command basic knowledge and skills directly related to his profession. While gaining this knowledge and skill in graduate education, the prospective principal should continue to broaden his educational background. One of the key tasks of the prospective principal as he pursues graduate education is to integrate his learning, to see applications of facts, and to understand the importance of critical thinking and investigation.

Graduate education should include field experience, so that the prospective administrator has opportunities to observe and to practice the application of theories and concepts. Many school districts are developing cadet principal programs in which young men and women are given the opportunity to serve as interns under the direction of able principals and in cooperation with university personnel.

The following statement, made with relation to general administration and graduate education, is a pertinent summary of this idea:

From his graduate education program, then, the student should be expected to develop competency in the technical aspects of school administration, in the use of sound problem-solving or research procedures, in dealing with administrative concerns, and in the process of administration itself. In addition, competencies that have been developing prior to the graduate program should be reinforced and further developed through formal class work and through experience. Finally, the potential administrator needs to gain through his graduate program a conviction that he wants to be an educational administrator and that

this desire is based on a well-founded analysis of his own strengths and weaknesses.⁸

EXPERIENCE BACKGROUND

It is perhaps an error to separate education and experience, but it is done here to stress the importance of learnings gained through experience as part of the background of a secondary school principal. Although experience can be educative, it is not necessarily so. The ability to learn from experience is one that the principal needs to develop and foster.

The secondary school principal will no doubt have spent at least a few years as a secondary school teacher. From this experience, he should gain a number of understandings about secondary school students, about the role of the school in a community, about the problems and possibilities in secondary school teaching, and about some of the administrative problems of a secondary school.

Because the principal works with a wide variety of people, it is valuable if his experience background includes some work experiences outside of the field of professional education. Even summer jobs while a high school or college student will give a person insight into the problems, hopes, and dreams of those who are the patrons of his school. A feeling for the dignity of all men regardless of their work or background and for the importance of all kinds of jobs is an important attribute of the effective principal. Work experience in jobs outside of professional education is one valuable way to gain this feeling.

Through various kinds of experiences, then, the prospective principal can gain understandings and skills both in the professional field of education and in the broader field of working with people, if he recognizes the opportunities for learning from experience and if he consciously works to take advantage of these opportunities.

There are, in addition, a few attributes that may not properly be classified as competencies but that do have some bearing on ability to perform effectively as a principal. Some of these are completely irrelevant to professional ability and, yet, they assume major importance. For example, experience in working with placement officers, boards of education, and superintendents indicates that a married man has a much greater chance to secure and to succeed in a principalship than does a single man. Why is this? Primarily it is a matter of tradition and community mores.

⁸ Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, *Introduction to Educational Administration* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958), pp. 275-276.

Although we do not recommend that all readers of this volume who are single marry immediately, it does seem important to point out that the ability to be a successful head of a family seems to be a part of the competency pattern required to become the head of a school.

Another point worthy of mention is that an effective principal needs to be a person with wide interests. He is expected to be interested in education, in athletics, in almost every community issue, and in all young people's activities. Unless an individual person has or is capable of gaining wide interests, he will find himself increasingly uncomfortable in his service as a principal.

Finally, a principal who finds being a "joiner" repugnant to him will experience difficulty in his job. In most medium-sized or small communities, the secondary school is a major if not the major community enterprise, and the secondary school principal is expected to be a civic leader. This carries with it the responsibility to participate in community activities and to join various community groups. Not only does this require physical stamina, but it requires willingness and enthusiasm.

COMPETENCIES AND BEHAVIOR

Such are the important competencies required by a secondary school principal. Possession of these competencies should lead to effective administrative behavior. A major portion of this behavior is devoted to working with people—with individuals, with small groups, or with large and formal groups. In using his competencies to work with people, the principal should base his behavior on some basic understandings.

Working with Individuals

In the first place, the behavior of the principal should reflect his respect for people and his belief in the preservation of each individual's self-respect. This is particularly true of his dealings with secondary school students—those young men and women who are not really children and are not yet adults. Adolescents are groping for independence and they defend their self-respect vigorously. The principal is a key figure in establishing a climate in which these young people can mature and develop with dignity and with grace. A principal who loses the confidence and respect of the students cannot be effective in promoting learning.

By the same token, the principal needs to help safeguard the confidence and self-respect of his staff. It is amazing how easily offhand re-

marks or slightly untactful comments can be magnified by a person into major attacks. As the administrator of an organization devoted to human growth and development, the principal should act so that every individual with whom he comes in contact is assisted in growing and developing. It is sometimes so easy to become engrossed in problems of groups that the problems of individuals are lost. This is an error the effective principal cannot afford to make.

One final point should be mentioned in discussing the principal's relations with individuals. Time and time again the principal will have to face student, teacher, or parent behavior that seems to him to be completely irrational. Psychologists point out that irrationality of behavior is primarily a matter of perception and that behavior always appears rational to the one behaving. If the principal tends to dismiss certain acts as irrational and does not attempt to assess the reasons behind these acts, his ability to deal with both the acts and the actor will be lessened. The irresponsible student or the highly-emotional parent act as they do for reasons that are not always readily apparent but that need to be discovered if improvements are to be realized.

Working with Groups

The administrator also spends many hours working with groups of various sizes. Professional literature in recent years has been replete with discussions of group dynamics. The principal needs to approach such literature with some caution. Too often, descriptions of ideal group action ignore the fact that an organization has status administrative leaders with definite assigned responsibilities. The principal often must approach group tasks in terms of goals and time schedules assigned to him. He cannot abdicate his responsibilities and turn them over to the group. This is not a plea for dictatorial action, but rather a statement of the need for intelligent, responsible group leadership.

As the principal works with groups, be they students, teachers, parents, or others, his behavior should reflect his understanding of the following points:

1. The task of the group should be made clear.
2. A tentative timetable for action should be established.
3. Participation of each member of the group should be encouraged.
4. The principal's opinions and values should not be allowed to dominate or to stifle group thinking. If the group perceives that its only purpose is to "rubber stamp" the ideas of the principal, its willing-

university program for the preparation of educational administrators. Such a program is obviously dedicated to the development and refinement of competency patterns in prospective principals. This statement describes the required competencies as follows:

A. Personal Attributes

1. Possession in reasonable degree of appropriate personal attributes and of a disposition to improve them. These attributes should include such basic qualities as intelligence, adequate energy, courage of one's convictions, and a warmth toward people.
2. An ability to apply sound problem-solving procedures to school concerns and a disposition to use this ability. Intelligent action may not be suggested by the prevailing opinion of those concerned with the action. Much depends upon a consideration of the pertinent available facts in the formulation of this opinion. The administrator must be willing to act on the basis of judgments derived from studying the available facts.
3. An inclination to act in terms of conscious value judgments. Educational leadership should be built upon sound principles of action that have been derived from a study of the role of the school in society, how children grow and develop, and the learning process. An educational leader so motivated avoids opportunistic decision-making as much as is possible.

B. Educational Background

4. *Understandings, attitudes, and skills resulting from an adequate general education.* A general education should have provided the following: some knowledge of man, his history, and his behavior psychologically, socially, economically, politically, and morally; some power to do quantitative thinking; skill in oral and written expression; some appreciation for music, art, and literature; and a set of values consistent with the ideals of our culture which tend to give his behavior consistency.
5. An understanding of the role of the school in the social order. An understanding of the social order seems to be a prerequisite to comprehending the place and potential power of the school in a culture. Such understanding should be basic to determining the needs of the people of any school community, of ascertaining means to meet these needs, and of deciding the place of the school and of other community agencies in achieving such ends.
6. An understanding of the instructional program and skills in curriculum development. To understand the instructional program

the administrator must have a foundation in human growth and development, in the characteristics and values of our culture, and in the principles and techniques of learning. He must be able to give leadership to teachers and to patrons in the development of the curriculum.

C. Working with People

7. An ability to cooperate with other people in planning, executing, and evaluating courses of action and a disposition to use this ability. Such a way of working must be based upon a fundamental conviction in its contribution to the achievement of the larger goal and upon a belief that cooperation produces better solutions to problems, results in more effective implementation of discussions, and promotes desirable growth on the part of the participants.
8. An ability to understand one's own motivations for action and how they affect his way of working with other people. To be an effective leader an administrator should have some conception of how other people see him and how this perception affects his relationship to them. The effect of the administrator upon others may depend greatly upon his own willingness to examine, evaluate, and rebuild his reasons for the way he works.
9. An ability to lead lay and professional people in considering the continuing improvement of the school and community; the ability to discover and promote such leadership in others; and a disposition to use these abilities. Leadership implies developing leaders. By such action on the part of the administrator, many people—lay and professional alike—become identified with a program and they learn the skills needed in responsible participation.

D. Professional Skills and Techniques

10. Understandings and skills in the task areas of educational administration. The competent administrator will operate in these specialized areas in ways which are consistent with the values implied by the other items in this statement.
11. Understandings and skills in the administrative process. The competent administrator will insure that the administrative process remains the servant and does not become the master of the administrator.⁹

⁹ Adapted from Committee on Educational Administration, *Areas in Which Educational Administrators Need to Develop a Pattern of Competence* (Columbus, Ohio: Center for Educational Administration, Department of Education, The Ohio State University, 1958), pp 3-11 (mimeographed).

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. What seem to you to be the strengths and weaknesses of the trait approach to describing leadership qualities? Do you think that the competency approach is markedly different? Why or why not?
2. Describe the differences you think exist between the competencies required of a secondary school principal and those required of a secondary school teacher.
3. It is often claimed that almost all secondary school principals are former coaches. Assuming that this is true (it is not), can you explain it in terms of the competencies required of secondary school principals?
4. Many successful insurance salesmen and book salesmen are former secondary school principals. How would you account for this fact?
5. "Experience is the best teacher." Evaluate this well-known statement briefly.

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chapter 12

THE MEASUREMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE POTENTIAL

CHAPTER 11 DESCRIBES THE COMPETENCIES or competency pattern the secondary school principal needs in order to be effective in his work. From this general discussion, we now move to the question of how an individual can assess his own potential to gain administrative competency and to become an effective secondary school principal. This is both a necessary question to ask and a difficult question to answer. Before attempting to answer the question, let us first consider some of the difficulties and dangers inherent in this process.

MEANING AND MEASUREMENT OF POTENTIAL

It is difficult to "measure" a prospective principal as he is today and then to rate his "potential" as a principal. Ability is, in a sense, the present state of a person's competencies. In an attempt to measure potential, then, present abilities must be measured and from these measurements inferences about the future drawn. This process gives rise to several problems.

In the first place, the measurement of present ability is a process

that cannot be done with precise accuracy. The measurement of intelligence, for example, must proceed in the absence of a concrete definition of the factors of intelligence and with the recognition that each measurement device used for this purpose has certain inadequacies.

Secondly, competencies are behavioral competencies. It is difficult to measure with pencil-and-paper instruments the ability to engage in certain kinds of behaviors. In judgments about potential competence, the inferences must often be made in the face of a lack of complete information.

In the third place, potential and performance in a specific position are related, but not on a one-to-one basis. Potential indicates a capacity to perform, but there must also be a desire to perform and a favorable environment in which to perform if success is to result. Every secondary school teacher has known students who have great potential but who, for one reason or another, have never reached the heights possible for them. There is no guarantee, then, that potential will result in a quality performance.

In spite of the uncertainties present in both the definition of competency and the measurement of potential, efforts to do both are necessary and important. The attempt to measure an individual's potential for the secondary school principalship provides an opportunity for self-analysis and introspection that should help an individual know himself better and make a reasoned judgment concerning the wisdom of his choice of occupational goals. It is with these words of caution and support that we approach a discussion of the measurement of potential.

PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES

The extent to which a prospective secondary school principal possesses certain of the personal attributes that lead to competency is fairly easily measured. Potential in others of these attributes is only very slightly subject to measurement. Over-all, however, this competency area is the one most subject to measurement and to prediction of success or failure as a principal.

Physical Attributes

The possession of general good health and adequate physical energy is a quality that should be known to an individual. There may be cases where

a person thinks he has physical energy only because he has never tried to use too much of it. The prospective principal should have some evidence that he does possess physical energy and that he will be able to stand the physical demands of a principalship. This evidence can be gathered by participating in community groups, by continuing graduate studies, by taking an active role in professional organizations, all while performing successfully as a teacher. The rigors of such an existence are little different from those encountered by a principal. If such activities overtax an individual's physical energy, or if they lead to tension and personal anxiety, the principalship will undoubtedly create strains that will lessen the individual's effectiveness as a person as well as in the specific job he is attempting to perform.

A health record is generally well-known to the individual. The person with a history of illnesses or with a record of periodic absences from the job due to health problems has little likelihood of real success unless the health situation can be corrected. If this record is due to carelessness, the prospective principal should realize that he cannot afford not to take care of his health if he wishes to succeed. If medical care of one kind or another can correct the situation but has been delayed or avoided, such medical care should be received before the individual assumes a principal's job. A program of regular health check-ups is a particularly important habit for the school administrator.

The final physical attribute to be considered is personal appearance. Personal appearance plays a key role in influencing effectiveness in a leadership role. This is particularly true in working with secondary school students. Although the prospective principal cannot completely alter his physical appearance if such alteration seems necessary, he can take certain steps to overcome handicaps he may possess. Proper attire and diet, good personal grooming, and attention to social personality attributes can be instrumental in overcoming some physical handicaps. However, persons with severe handicaps in the area of personal appearance should face the fact that these handicaps may make success as a principal unlikely and may even make it difficult to secure a principal's position.

As the prospective principal considers his potential for administration, his analysis of his physical attributes should include consideration of the following:

Health—generally good.

Energy—more than average.

Appearance—normal and shown off to best advantage.

Mental Attributes

The secondary school principal needs to possess better than average intelligence, but the possession of intelligence is valuable only if this intelligence is used effectively. In addition, recent studies show that there are various factors of intelligence and that a general intelligence test may not provide sufficient data about these factors to make an absolute judgment of intellectual potential. It is important, then, to consider both general intelligence and the specific factors of intelligence in a consideration of potential for secondary school administration.

GENERAL INTELLIGENCE. A study by Hopper and Bills revealed that the median intelligence quotient of a large sample of school administrators was 127 and that the range of scores in this group was from 109 to 133.¹ This gives some idea of the meaning of above-average intelligence as applied to school administrators. The prospective principal may have some idea of scores he has made on past intelligence tests. If not, any one of the following examinations provide good norms for adults:

Army General Classification Test: First Civilian Edition (AGCT).

Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, Illinois.

California Short Form Test of Mental Maturity, Advanced Form.

California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

Ohio State University Psychological Examination (OSPE), Form 21.

The Ohio State University Press, Columbus, Ohio.

Although there are always exceptions, the student who scores much below the range cited above on one of these tests has little chance for distinct success as a secondary school principal and is, as a matter of fact, probably experiencing some difficulty in being an outstanding secondary school teacher.

FACTORS OF INTELLIGENCE. Several standardized tests show promise of having real predictive value in measuring administrative potential in terms of one or more factors of intelligence. Both the Miller Analogies Test² and the Cooperative English C2³ tend to measure reasoning ability and insight, although the former test is essentially a high-level scholastic aptitude test and the latter emphasizes reading comprehension. The Watson-

¹ Robert L. Hopper and Robert E. Bills, "What's a Good Administrator Made Of?" *School Executive*, 74:93, March 1955.

² *Miller Analogies Test* (New York: The Psychological Corporation).

³ *Cooperative English Test, Form C2* (Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service).

Glaser *Critical Thinking Appraisal*⁴ is designed to measure ability to sort facts, to develop valid conclusions, to discover assumptions that underlie generalizations, to choose among relevant and irrelevant data, and to draw accurate inferences from related data. Studies at the University of Texas suggest that a candidate for work in the field of educational administration should score above 55 on the combined percentile scores for these three tests.⁵

Low scores on these tests may reveal a lack of practice in the use of certain factors of intelligence more than they reveal a lack in the factors themselves. Be that as it may, the prospective principal whose performance is poor on these tests should be aware that he has some work cut out for him if he is to be an effective administrator.

INDIRECT INDICATORS. There are other indices of intelligence that the prospective administrator should consider. Academic records are related to some extent to intelligence. Certainly, a student knows—even though his grades may not accurately reflect this fact—whether a certain course of study was “easy” or “difficult” for his mental equipment.

In addition, a mature person is somewhat aware of his laziness or energy in approaching intellectual problems. The prospective principal who tends to seek out tough intellectual problems, who is challenged by problems that make him reach out into new learnings, or who enjoys reading thought-provoking essays as well as escape literature is undoubtedly more given to the exercise of his intelligence than is a person who avoids these activities.

In other words, although certain tests can provide excellent and fairly direct measurement of mental attributes, the prospective administrator must also be aware of the use he makes of his attributes.

As the student considers his potential as a principal in terms of his mental attributes, he should pay attention to the following:

Gross measurements of intelligence (IQ)—above average, preferably in 120's.

Measurements of factors of intelligence—strong in reasoning, insight, comprehension.

Evidence of use of intelligence—intellectually awake in everyday life.

⁴ *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Company).

⁵ Kenneth E. McIntyre, *An Experiment in Recruiting and Selecting Leaders for Education* (Austin, Texas: Southwest School Administration Center, 1956), pp. 29-35.

Social Personality Attributes

The measurement of social personality attributes is more inexact than in other personal attribute areas, and the exact requirements for the effective principal are not well known. Here we must deal almost entirely with common sense rather than with common sense backed by research evidence. Although a few studies have attempted to relate administrator effectiveness to certain personality inventory scores, the results are not sufficiently clear to permit the development of firm generalizations.

Thus, although it would be helpful in the selection and preparation of secondary school principals if we knew that a given profile with a given personality inventory indicated potential success, this is not the case. Each of us knows successful principals with greatly different personality attributes. It is both unlikely and undesirable that a common personality mold for principals will ever be developed. Nevertheless, there are certain indications that help assess potential for secondary school administration in terms of social personality attributes.

STANDARDIZED INSTRUMENTS. The use of a standardized instrument for measuring social personality attributes offers two advantages. In the first place, the results can be compared with results obtained in studies that have attempted to relate test scores to administrator effectiveness. Of even more importance is the fact that the use of these devices often reveals to a person some things about himself that he did not know. The self-diagnosis feature of these tests, then, is probably their most important feature.

McIntyre discovered some relationships between effective administrators and scores obtained on the *Guilford-Martin Inventories*.⁶ These inventories provide measurements dealing with a number of social personality areas. McIntyre found that effective administrators scored consistently high in sociability, freedom from depression, masculinity, freedom from inferiority feelings, freedom from nervousness, objectivity, and cooperativeness.⁷ In all fairness to female readers, it should be noted that this study was conducted with male administrators and no evidence was produced to show that femininity was a disadvantage for the woman administrator.

The Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values is an instrument that

⁶ *Guilford-Martin Inventories* (Beverly Hills, Cal.: Sheridan Supply Company).

⁷ McIntyre, *op. cit.*, pp. 31-34.

proposes a number of forced choice situations.⁸ The patterns of an individual's choices tend to reveal certain value attributes. These attributes are placed on a profile revealing relative value feelings in the theoretical, political, economic, aesthetic, social, and religious areas. Although some trends seem apparent, it is safe to say only that this instrument is of particular help in giving a prospective administrator some insight into his own value system.

In an excellent discussion of leadership, Gibb reports several studies in which the Bernreuter Scale has been used to relate certain social personality attributes to leadership behavior.⁹ In general, these studies revealed that leaders tend to score higher than nonleaders in the areas of self-confidence, sociability, and dominance, and lower in the areas of introversion.¹⁰

Although a number of other excellent personality inventories exist, these have not been used in studies of administrative effectiveness. In general, however, regardless of the lack of research relating any of these tests to the principalship, it is apparent that the effective principal should understand himself and that the use of these inventories will aid in meeting this need.

OTHER APPROACHES. In assessing potential for the principalship in terms of social personality attributes, it is necessary to do some introspective thinking independent of any standardized inventories or guides. Chapter II lists originality, adaptability, initiative, ambition, evenness of disposition, sense of humor, confidence, self-assurance, gregariousness, and general balance as social personality attributes that the effective secondary school principal should possess. For the most part, careful thought on the part of the individual prospective administrator will provide a valid assessment of the degree to which his behavior reflects each of these attributes.

For example, in the matter of originality, the prospective principal might well examine his own teaching practices to discover the answer to questions such as the following:

* Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, Revised Edition (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951).

⁹ Bernreuter Personality Inventory (Stanford: Stanford University Press).

¹⁰ Cecil A. Gibb, "Leadership," *Handbook of Social Psychology*, Volume II, edited by Gardner Lindzey (Reading, Mass: Addison Wesley Publishing Company, 1954), pp. 556-558.

Character Attributes

A principal obviously needs to be a man or woman of good character. This means that he must behave in terms of an acceptable and consistent moral and ethical code. It is not enough for the prospective principal to be able to say that he is "no worse than a lot of people."

The secondary school principal is closely related to the younger generation, a group groping for independence and sometimes consciously or unconsciously striving to shock their elders in an attempt to gain recognition. This means that the secondary school principal should not be a person whose moral and ethical code is unrealistic and impractical to deal with members of the current social scene.

There should be little need to spell out in detail how to assess character. However, if the prospective principal is not willing to have his character put in the spotlight where it will be viewed by teachers, students, parents, and others, he will not enjoy educational administration. Although every American has the right to live his life in privacy, that right must to some extent be subjugated to professional requirements if the person chooses to enter a given profession. The principalship is no exception, and an individual's code of behavior must meet high standards if he wishes to enter this field.

In addition to general character attributes, the prospective principal should be able to subscribe willingly to a code of ethics for his profession. The prospective principal who cannot subscribe to such a code wholeheartedly or who cannot understand the basis for such a code should seriously doubt his readiness for an administrative position. A recently-developed code of ethics for school administrators follows:

The school administrator is in the forefront of the American public school system. As such, he shall reflect the highest type of ethical character, and serve as an outstanding example to his coworkers and associates in his personal and professional life. To this end, he subscribes to a rigid code of personal and professional standards. The following statements reflect the type of behavior demanded of the administrator.

I. Community Relations.

1. He shall take appropriate steps to keep the community continuously and truthfully informed about the school. Information released to the community shall be clear, accurate, honest, and free from misleading or confusing statements.
2. In public life, the school administrator shall observe and respect the mores of the community.

IV. Teachers and Employees.

1. Contracts with teachers and other employees shall be honestly and clearly stated, and salaries shall be in line with existing schedules and practices.
2. Contracts with teachers and other employees shall be honored and shall be terminated only in terms of the conditions thereof.
3. Duties of employees shall be clearly understood at the time of initial employment.
4. Channels of communication shall be observed, and the school administrator shall not indulge in matters with teachers and other employees that lie in the province of other administrators.
5. The school administrator shall not interfere in disciplinary matters between teachers and pupils unless it is clearly evident that unfairness or violation of regulations is present.
6. Deficiencies of teachers and other employees shall be discussed only with the people concerned and in confidence.
7. The school administrator shall encourage his teachers and employees to maintain the same type of ethical character and professional attitudes that he demands of himself.
8. The school administrator shall not use his influence to force teachers to subscribe to things because of his position.
9. The school administrator assumes responsibility for the success of all employees, realizing that failure of an employee is at least partially an administrative failure: in selection, in supervision, or in assignment.
 - a. He is alert to opportunities to further the advancement of each employee. He attempts to make vacancies known to present employees so that they may apply for preferred positions.
 - b. He spares no effort to maintain and increase professional standards, he utilizes all professional placement agencies to obtain properly qualified teachers and administrators.
 - c. He makes no offer of employment effective while the candidate is known to be under contract to another district unless that district has first notified him of its willingness to release the employee.
 - d. He does not seek applicants for professional positions by advertising in newspapers or other publications of general circulation.

- e. He accepts no remuneration from commercial placement agencies whose candidates he interviews or employs.
 - f. He makes sure that observed weaknesses are called to the attention of the employee and that assistance toward their correction is extended, but he does not jeopardize the educational welfare of children in order to avoid an unpleasant dismissal relationship.
 - g. He reports no negative criticism of any employee to the board without having first discussed the criticism with the employee involved.
10. The school administrator is alert to inform the board about good performances and contributions of employees and does not accept the credit for service performed by others.

V. Relations with Pupils.

- 1. Information relating to pupil abilities, deficiencies, or behavior shall be kept in strict confidence and shall not be released except to authorized personnel.
- 2. Disciplinary measures shall not be taken except by referral, and shall be in the best interests of the school and the community.
- 3. The administrator will deal justly with students regardless of their mental, physical, emotional, political, economical, racial, or religious characteristics.

VI. Agents and Salesmen.

- 1. Lists of pupils, teachers, and employees shall not be made available to agents or salesmen for advertising, canvassing, or personal profit.
- 2. Orders and contracts entered into shall be honored, and shall be made on the basis of need and value only.
- 3. No gift, remuneration, or discount based on giving preference of personal gain to any agent or salesman shall be accepted.
- 4. The school administrator shall not act as an agent or salesman for any item purchased by the school system or an employee thereof.

VIII. Professional.

- 1. The school administrator shall evidence interest in professional standing through membership in local, state, and national educational associations.
- 2. He shall constantly strive to better his professional standing through study and activity in professional organizations.

3. He shall rigidly adhere to the code of ethics adopted by his state.¹¹

In summary, then, the prospective principal should subscribe to a high personal standard of conduct and to a sound professional code of ethics. He must be willing to let his actions stand in the light of community and professional appraisal. He should know the rationale that underlies both his personal and his professional conduct. Lastly, he should be willing to stand as a good example for the people whom he will serve.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

Many factors influence growth and development and thus help create potential as principals. Important among these factors is educational background. Although a given kind of background guarantees very little, it should provide certain understandings, which influence potential, and certain clues to potential.

General Academic Background

Perhaps the most deflating experience that a student can undergo is to be examined with the Graduate Record Examinations.¹² Covering almost every field of learning, these examinations are an excellent diagnostic instrument. Although it would be unreasonable to expect that a prospective principal would receive high scores in every area, from fine arts to chemistry, the background of a principal should lead to knowledge in more than one field of specialization.

If the student has no knowledge in areas other than his one or two teaching fields, he will find it difficult to communicate with teachers whose fields cover a wide range. As the prospective principal analyzes his academic background and his potential, he should determine in how many areas he has at least a minimum level of knowledge. Although the history teacher-football coach cannot be expected to be an expert in art or in vocational agriculture, his potential as a principal will be enhanced if he has some familiarity with the contents of these fields. The greater the breadth of study, then, the greater the opportunities for effective administration by the secondary school principal.

¹¹ "Directory of the Ohio Association of School Administrators, 1960," *Bulletin of the Ohio Association of School Administrators*, January 1960, pp. 5-8.

¹² Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service.

One other general academic factor should be considered in any analysis of potential. This is the often-criticized, but ever-present evidence of academic achievement—the grade point. To begin with, the grade point serves as partial evidence to superintendents and boards of education as they select principals. Potential is reduced if the likelihood of securing a position is reduced. Even more important, however, is the fact that the academic record does reveal a great deal about ability to learn, motivations, and adaptability to academic situations. A generally poor academic record, then, should serve as a warning signal that administrative potential is subject to question. If reasons for this record are discovered that can be corrected or removed, this should be done. Otherwise, the choice of a career as a principal of a secondary school seems to lack wisdom.

Professional Academic Background

The secondary school principal needs to have at his command a great deal of professional knowledge, much of which is gained through university study. Earlier in this text we have described in some detail the general requirements of leadership and of the specific task areas in which the principal will work. Although all of the learnings necessary to success in meeting these requirements cannot be gained through academic work, an adequate academic background in these areas is essential. This means, then, that the academic background of the prospective principal should enable him to be a good teacher; and he should build upon this background to gain the learnings necessary to become a good principal.

This requires a careful assessment of professional knowledge. Chapter 11 lists fourteen knowledge areas that should be mastered by the prospective principal. This list can serve as an excellent device for measuring potential. How much, for example, do you know about adolescent growth and development, about the aims of education, or about curriculum development? To what extent are you up-to-date on research findings that relate to teaching and learning? Do you recall any psychology other than that some Russian did something with dogs, dog food, and bells?

One way to discover the extent of professional knowledge is to take the *National Teacher Examinations*,¹³ or the *How I Teach Inventory*.¹⁴ Each of these instruments provides evidence concerning the degree to which a teacher understands the basic concepts of teaching and learning.

¹³ Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service.

¹⁴ Kelly-Perkins *How I Teach Inventory* (Minneapolis, Minn.: Educational Test Bureau).

Each of the task areas that we have described also can lead to assessment of potential. To what extent, for example, does your knowledge of sociology assist you in becoming a community leader for education? Although the prospective principal is not expected to have studied all that is necessary to be a principal, this kind of assessment can help the aspiring principal plan his future academic work so that gaps can be filled.

The prospective principal should realize that he has a great deal of control over his potential in terms of academic background. *If gaps are revealed, he can take steps fairly easily to remedy this situation. In making this assessment, the following points should be considered:*

Academic record—Good grades; Phi Beta Kappa not necessary, but at least a B average preferable.

General academic background—Some specialization, but also breadth.

Professional academic background—Secure grasp of the basic concepts and disciplines that underlie the teaching-learning situation; beginning knowledge about leadership and the principalship.

EXPERIENCE BACKGROUND

The prospective principal should have had a variety of school and non-school experiences. The local boy who goes to local schools and a local college and then starts teaching in the local high school has much less potential for leadership than does the person who has had a variety of experiences in a variety of situations. If one learns from experience—and this is not automatic—a wide variety of experiences should provide him with great potential to face various kinds of problems with originality and confidence.

The principal will work with a number of representatives of his community. If, for example, the principal has spent some time engaged in common labor, he may better understand those people who spend their lives in this type of work. If he has traveled fairly widely, he may better understand the problems of those who move to his community from much different localities.

There are, of course, no hard and fast rules governing the relationship between quantity of experiences and effectiveness of administration. As the prospective principal assesses his potential in terms of experience, however, he might well consider his range of experiences in all areas. A lack of experience can decrease his potential for effectiveness. It might indicate, then, that next summer instead of going to school, a trip or some

work experience would be beneficial. He should consider the following areas of experience:

- School experience—Have you:
 - Taught in large and small schools?
 - Taught children at various age levels?
 - Taught children at different ability levels?
 - Taught more than one subject?
 - Taught in rural and urban schools?
 - Worked with various cocurriculum activities?
 - Experienced teaching success in varied situations?
- Work experience—Have you:
 - Worked at an unskilled job?
 - Belonged to a union?
 - Been a foreman or a supervisor?
 - Experienced success in various jobs?
- Travel—Have you:
 - Traveled outside of your own region?
 - Been in a foreign country?
 - Studied the mores of different regions?
 - Strayed from "beaten tourist paths"?

Although experience does not guarantee success, the principal cannot afford to be parochial or provincial as he fulfills a leadership role. If university training cannot provide all the knowledge, skills, and understandings that the principal needs, it is apparent that these must grow from experience. If experience is limited, efforts should be made to expand this background before assuming a principal's position.

MOTIVATION

Even though a young man or woman may appear to possess all the factors that would seem to lead to great success as a principal, these factors would be meaningless unless that person was strongly motivated to be a successful principal. Studies relating motivation and success are legion. Perhaps motivation is the key variable that causes two apparently equal people to achieve differing degrees of success. This means that in a consideration of potential, a consideration of motivations must loom large. It is safe to say that the person motivated toward a principalship for reasons of power or of money alone will have little chance of achieving effectiveness. As any secondary school teacher should know, the power of the principal is some-

thing that, in the last analysis, is delegated to him by his teaching staff. And certainly, the financial rewards of the principalship rarely lead to riches. Power and wealth, then, are unrealistic motivations toward the principalship.

We have mentioned earlier the possibilities that a leadership position presents. Such a position also presents problems and frustrations. If the prospective principal is motivated by a desire to make a contribution to secondary education and to use his talents as effectively as possible, there is every possibility that this will lead to a maximum realization of his potential. The principalship is not an escape from teaching nor an easy road to glory; it is hard work. Unless one is motivated to be a successful principal on a sound basis, his potential will not lead to effective administrative behavior.

BEHAVIOR

The competency approach to describing effective educational administrators involves descriptions of behavior, of traits or attributes in action. Although we have been discussing attributes *here for the most part*, the reader should remember that his future administrative effectiveness will be measured primarily in terms of behavior. For example, the mere possession of self-confidence is not in itself a measure of effectiveness. What is significant is the way in which this self-confidence shows itself in the behavior of the principal. The self-confident person generally has an easier time making decisions than does a person with little faith in himself. The self-confident person generally makes a better impression upon people he meets than does the person who lacks this confidence. The self-confident person is generally able to criticize his own behavior and to accept criticism from others. Thus, it is not self-confidence that is important; it is the way in which self-confidence manifests itself in behavior.

The factors that affect potential can be roughly divided into three categories—attributes, skills and knowledges, and understandings. Each of these categories leads to effectiveness or ineffectiveness as the items within the categories are used in working with people. It seems important, then, for the prospective principal to review his potential for administration in terms of his effectiveness in working with people.

One of the best devices for checking ability to work with people was developed by workers at the National Training Laboratory at Bethel,

Maine. This form provides forty-five statements to be used in self-diagnosis. Although there are no "right" or "wrong" reactions to these statements, the implication of each answer for one's behavior as a principal is quite clear. For each statement, the prospective principal should decide whether it is a very accurate description of him, is quite descriptive, is both true and untrue as description, is generally not a true description, or is a decidedly false description of him. After reacting to the statements and reviewing our descriptions of the role of the principal, the reader should gain valuable insight into his behavioral potential as an administrator. This form follows:

"Ideas About Myself" Inventory

1. I think I have a pretty clear understanding of how the people I work with see themselves and the job they are trying to do.
2. I am not the kind of person who can stand up to his superiors and disagree with them.
3. It is important for me to maintain my individuality within any group to which I belong.
4. My relations with other people never present much difficulty for me.
5. I enjoy following a good leader more than being a leader myself.
6. I will stand up for my own ideas even under a lot of pressure from others to change.
7. I often get so involved in doing a particular job that I don't pay much attention to the feelings and reactions of other people concerned.
8. My first reaction to a proposal that things be done differently is usually negative.
9. I try to have things thoroughly thought out before taking an active part in the group.
10. I am aware of most of the shortcomings in my social behavior.
11. I always try to achieve a position of power in a group.
12. I feel that I am more fully expressing my personality when I am working in a group than at any other time.
13. I am often tactless and hurt people's feelings without meaning to.
14. I often get so wound up in what I want to say that I do not really listen to what other people are saying.
15. I do not like to express my ideas unless I know they have the support of others.
16. I usually react positively to new people.
17. I am pretty good at taking initiative in a group to keep things moving along.

18. If I believe in something, I will work for it even when this requires opposing friends and associates.
19. I do not pay enough attention to the need and feelings of individuals with whom I work.
20. I am better at arguing than at conciliating and compromising.
21. I am easily persuaded by others to see things their way.
22. I often detach myself psychologically from the group and just watch what is going on.
23. When someone is talking, I not only listen to what he says but also notice how people react to the things he says.
24. I find it very frustrating to have to work on an important project with other people instead of alone.
25. I get quite upset when people allow their personal feelings to affect the work they are doing.
26. I am quite fearful about going into new social situations.
27. I am happier when working on a project with others than I am when working on something of my own.
28. I can usually predict the reactions of people I know to new suggestions.
29. I enjoy sticking up for my own ideas.
30. I cannot stand up against others in support of unpopular ideas.
31. I am pretty good at finding ways of bringing together two people who seem to be disagreeing.
32. I think I have quite a lot of influence on other people.
33. I sometimes feel that a group or relationship in which I am involved gets so strong that it hampers my individuality and freedom.
34. I am often amazed at the variety of impressions different participants have of the same meeting.
35. It is relatively easy for me to persuade people to see things my way.
36. It does not matter to me whether other people agree with my opinions or not.
37. I get emotionally upset when a group member begins to introduce side issues into the group discussion.
38. I do not like to have the final responsibility for making decisions.
39. I would say I am more likely to dominate a group than to be dominated by it.
40. I am able to silence a group member tactfully when he attempts to introduce his personal feelings into the discussion.
41. I feel blocked and frustrated in my own school situation because of the difficulties resulting from the attitudes of certain people there.
42. I work better with individuals than I do with a group.

43. I feel very much on the spot when people discuss faults I know I have.
44. I take a lot of initiative in starting new activities or procedures.
45. I can make a greater contribution by working as part of a group than I can by working alone.¹⁵

Another vital factor influencing a person's ability to work with other people is his ability to communicate. Good written and spoken English are necessary, but, in addition, the principal need to be able to get ideas to and from others. It is difficult to assess potential in the field of communication, particularly in the communication of ideas. However, we have all tried from time to time to give directions to an individual and to groups, to pass on information, or to give assignments. By carefully reviewing the degree of success or failure in these acts of communication we can come to some judgments about our communication ability. Certainly if a prospective principal has experienced difficulty in getting students to understand assignments, this is an indication of a weakness that needs to be overcome before he can expect to perform effectively as a principal.

The best evidence of ability to work with people is success in working with people in the past. As a student, a teacher, and a person, the prospective principal has had ample opportunities to work with all kinds of people, individually and in groups. As one assesses his potential as a secondary school principal, he needs to review his record in working with people and to discover the extent to which his potential seems high or low in this all-important aspect of administration.

CONCLUSION: OVER-ALL VIEW OF POTENTIAL

The time has now come to put together the various appraisals of potential, to reach a judgment about the wisdom of one's choice to enter the principalship, and to plan for future growth. In the summary of Chapter 11 we presented an eleven-point outline of the competencies required of an educational administrator. This framework will serve well for a summary analysis of potential. The tests, questions, and self-diagnosis presented in this chapter can be used to arrive at a judgment of one's present state in

¹⁵ Gordon N. MacKenzie and Stephen M. Corey, *Instructional Leadership* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954), pp. 202-204.

Progress in Gaining Professional Knowledge and Skill¹⁶

Task Area: School-Community Relations

| Specifics: | Have Studied | Have Observed | Have Participated |
|------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Studying community characteristics | | | |
| Assessing community opinion | | | |
| Providing information | | | |
| Working with community leaders | | | |

Pertinent reference material:

Plans for improving knowledge and skill in this area:

each of these competencies. After arriving at a judgment of potential in each competency, the prospective principal can plan for improvement where it is necessary. If too much improvement is indicated or if the work required for improvement does not seem worth the effort, a career choice other than the principalship is wise. In any case, unless plans to improve potential are accompanied by action, there is little likelihood of improvement.

Following are two forms to assist in summarizing self-appraisal. The first deals with an analysis of professional knowledge and skill. The second is based upon the eleven-point competency pattern.

¹⁶ Adapted from Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, *Introduction to Educational Administration* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958), p. 314.

Professional Knowledge and Skill

In Chapters 5 through 9, we have described five task areas of the secondary school principal. It is in these areas that the principal must bring his professional knowledge and skill to bear. A form similar to the following should be developed for each of these task areas. The task area of school-community relationships is presented as an example. The specifics of the area as listed in the form are incomplete and should be added to as the prospective principal's understanding of the requirements of the task area broadens.

Areas of Competence¹⁷

The following figure is self-explanatory. It can and should be used both to consolidate appraisal of potential and to establish a record of plans for improving this potential.

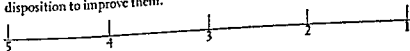
For each area of competence place a check mark at the position on the scale that most nearly represents your judgment of your own competence. Your present competence should be considered in relation to the competence required of an effective educational administrator. The following scale can be used:

- 5—Superior
- 4—Somewhat above average
- 3—Average
- 2—Somewhat below average
- 1—Very low

Below the scale in the space provided, indicate plans for improving your competence. These plans might include teaching or other experience, university course work, and considerations of certification and advanced degree requirements.

A. Personal Attributes

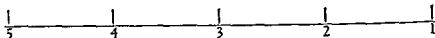
1. Possession in reasonable degree of appropriate personal attributes and a disposition to improve them.



Plan: _____

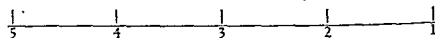
¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 315-317.

2. An ability and a disposition to apply sound problem-solving procedures to school concerns.



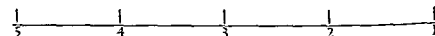
Plan: _____

3. An inclination to act in terms of conscious value judgments.



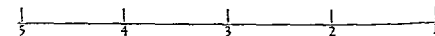
Plan: _____

4. Understandings, attitudes, and skills resulting from an adequate general education.



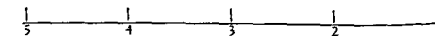
Plan: _____

5. An understanding of the role of the school in the social order.



Plan: _____

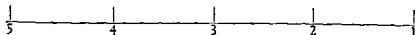
6. An understanding of the instructional program and skills in curriculum development.



Plan: _____

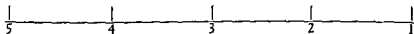
B. Working with People

7. A disposition and an ability to cooperate with other people in planning, executing, and evaluating courses of action.



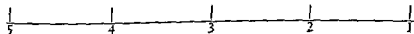
Plan: _____

8. An inclination and an ability to understand one's own motivations for action and how they affect his way of working with other people.



Plan: _____

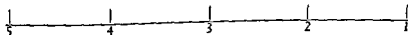
9. A disposition and an ability to lead lay and professional people in considering the continuing improvement of the school and community; the ability to discover and promote such leadership in others.



Plan: _____

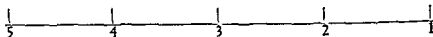
C. Professional Skills and Techniques

10. An understanding of and skills in the technical aspects of school administration.



Plan: _____

11. An understanding of and skills in the administrative process.



Plan: _____

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

This entire chapter is itself a series of suggested activities. It is hoped that each reader will conduct a self-appraisal as suggested by this chapter and will develop records of the appraisal and of plans for the future. Friends or colleagues can rate you independently of your own rating. By comparing results, you will gain much insight as you to some extent see yourself as others see you.

SELECTED READINGS

- Campbell, Roald F., John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, *Introduction to Educational Administration*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958. Chapter 11.
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part four

THE PROFESSION

PART FOUR IS DEVOTED to a discussion of secondary school administration as a profession. Chapter 13 discusses the professional opportunities. In this chapter the focus is on the kinds of positions that exist for administrators, salary data, and the routes by which these positions are secured. Chapter 14, an analysis of the administrative team concept, presents the inter-related ways in which a secondary school administrator can work, with others, to accomplish the school's complex objectives. Chapter 15 concludes with the exciting career challenges that await those who choose secondary school administration as their avenue of service.

THE PROFESSIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

THOSE WHO SERIOUSLY CONTEMPLATE a career in secondary school administration need certain "avenue" kinds of data. What kinds of positions are available in the field? How many of them are there? How are they secured? What qualifications must a person have to be eligible for these positions? How much do they pay? What job security exists? What opportunities do they hold for continued professional growth? These, and other questions, should cross the mind of any individual who aspires to a position in secondary school administration, for a knowledge of these things enables a person to plan his career with greater precision.

THE CURRENT SCENE

Kinds of Positions Available

As yet there is not the diversity of administrative positions in secondary schools that exists at the central administrative level in a school district. Secondary schools are growing in size, however, and more variation is beginning to appear. Basically, the administrative personnel are junior and senior high school principals. The trend is for these to be nonteaching

positions. In the smaller schools, however, the principal may be required to teach at least part-time, although this situation is disappearing quite rapidly.

Most secondary schools with an enrollment of 500-1000 pupils now have an assistant or vice-principal, whose responsibilities may be defined in a number of different ways. In many instances, for example, he may oversee the attendance function, administer student extracurriculum activities, and have some responsibilities in the field of discipline. The assignment of duties is very flexible, and desirably so, for this flexibility permits the administrative organization to be designed on the basis of the individual's unique competencies and the particular needs that exist in a school during any given year.

As we envision future kinds of positions available in secondary school administration, we must start from already-existing positions. The Willoughby-Eastlake School District of Lake County, Ohio, for example, recently completed an extensive staffing study.¹ As a result, some natural groups of subject-matter areas were established into divisions. Each division is to be headed by an instructional assistant principal. In addition, the school has a noninstructional assistant principal who will coordinate the activities of the nonteaching staff. Although it is not completely in operation as yet, the plan offers one possible blueprint for growth during the years ahead.

Admittedly, these types of positions are far more characteristic of the large secondary school than of the small one, unless, of course, some rather unique circumstances exist. Less dependent on size are some other types of administrative assignments, which should be mentioned briefly. These represent positions for those who are interested in specific rather than general administration, and in most cases they are not established on a full-time basis. Some of them, however, are excellent opportunities for the person interested in eventual full-time administration to gain valuable experience. Chief among these positions are those of dean, department chairman, and director of guidance or counseling. Another frequently occurring position is that of the school treasurer. A position growing in importance is that of the coordinator of extracurriculum activities. Many secondary schools have a *faculty manager of athletics*. Some of the larger secondary schools have a director of curriculum. Another position of considerable promise for the future is that of administrative assistant. Often

¹ *Administrative Staffing Study* (Willoughby, Ohio: Willoughby-Eastlake, Ohio, School District, 1959) mimeographed.

An analysis of salary trends for secondary school administrators indicates that the differential schedule is becoming more and more prevalent, particularly in those districts containing several secondary schools. This plan attaches a numerical weighting to such items as responsibility, length of the working year, and number of teachers under the supervision of the principal. A factor is then determined; most commonly for junior high school principals this is between 1.30 and 1.50; and for senior high schools principals between 1.40 and 1.60. The administrator's salary is then determined by multiplying the maximum salary of a classroom teacher at the administrator's level of preparation and experience by the weighted figure established for the position. If, for example, the maximum teaching salary for the master's degree classification is \$8,000, and the factor for the secondary school principal is 1.50, his salary would be \$12,000.

In smaller school districts, the most common practice seems to be that of establishing administrative salaries independently of the class-

Table 6. Medians of maximum salaries scheduled for certain administrators with highest level of preparation recognized, 1958-1959

| Position | Group I ¹ | | Group II ² | |
|------------------------|----------------------|----------|-----------------------|----------|
| | Number of Schedules | Median | Number of Schedules | Median |
| Classroom Teachers | 25 | \$ 7,200 | 110 | \$ 7,000 |
| Elementary School | | | | |
| Supervising Principals | 24 | 9,502 | 88 | 8,700 |
| Head Teachers and | | | | |
| Teaching Principals | 8 | 7,638 | 24 | 7,310 |
| Assistant Principals | 16 | 8,225 | 28 | 8,025 |
| Junior High School | | | | |
| Principals | 21 | 10,001 | 69 | 9,210 |
| Assistant Principals | 16 | 8,525 | 43 | 8,458 |
| Senior High School | | | | |
| Principals | 24 | 11,000 | 85 | 9,930 |
| Assistant Principals | 22 | 8,940 | 74 | 8,959 |
| Heads of Departments | 7 | 8,150 | 26 | 8,280 |
| Counselors | 11 | 7,800 | 27 | 7,875 |
| Deans | 6 | 7,350 | 17 | 7,915 |

¹ Districts with 500,000 or more population.

² Districts with populations between 100,000 and 499,999.

Source: "Administrators' Maximum Salaries," *Research Bulletin No. 37* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1959), p. 22.

room teacher schedules. Frequently, under these less structured conditions, then, administrators' salaries are set on an individual basis, as the result of personal bargaining between employer and employee, although prevailing regional circumstances often play a prevalent role in determining the general range of these salaries.

As salary data are analyzed on a national scale, figures pertaining to urban districts often are the first to be reported, since these districts are fewer in number but employ a substantial percentage of the country's teaching and administrative personnel. Table 6 shows salary medians for selected urban school districts.

It should be noted that salaries paid in these large urban districts tend to be somewhat larger than those obtainable in the smaller districts. Competitive conditions and increased recognition of the fact that administrative salaries need to be raised is narrowing this gap.

The data in Table 7 provide a picture of some salary comparisons between different administrative positions in districts of varying sizes.

Table 7. Average salaries paid classroom teachers, principals, and superintendents in urban school districts, 1958-1959

| School District Groups, by Population | School Principals | | | | Superintendent of Schools |
|--|-----------------------|----------------------------------|----------------|----------------|------------------------------|
| | Classroom Teachers | Elementary (Super- vising) | Junior High | Senior High | |
| I. 500,000 and over | \$5,969 | \$9,531 | \$10,215 | \$11,456 | \$24,066 |
| II. 100,000-499,999 | 5,260 | 7,560 | 8,615 | 9,248 | 17,204 |
| III. 30,000- 99,999 | 5,300 | 7,427 | 8,363 | 9,111 | 14,168 |
| IV. 10,000- 29,999 | 5,058 | 6,602 | 7,359 | 7,943 | 11,332 |
| V. 5,000- 9,999 | 4,755 | 5,939 | 6,377 | 6,936 | 9,290 |
| VI. 2,500- 4,999 | 4,616 | 5,685 | 5,632 | 6,392 | 8,369 |
| Weighted average, all districts | \$5,313 | \$7,731 | \$8,139 | \$8,373 | \$11,000 |

Source: "Salaries of Urban Teachers Rising Slowly," Research Bulletin No. 37, (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1959), p. 72.

As far as job security is concerned, the secondary school administrator should recognize that he is classified as a teacher according to school legislation. As a teacher, then, he is protected by existing tenure laws. His assignment is subject to the discretion of the superintendent of schools and ultimately, of course, of the board of education. The tenure of a secondary school administrator results from his demonstrated competence. As an educational leader, this is the only type of security he could justify.

THE ANTICIPATED SCENE

Between 1958 and 1959 the number of school districts in the United States declined from 49,071 to 45,393; and it is likely that the trend toward fewer school districts will continue. Somewhat paradoxically, however, this will likely result in more secondary school administrative positions rather than in less. The diminishing numbers of school districts mean larger schools, particularly at the secondary level, which means that the number of nonteaching principals will increase. When this factor is coupled with the estimate that there will be a 47 per cent increase in the numbers of students in secondary schools from 1958 to 1965, it becomes virtually certain that these larger secondary schools, accommodating greater amounts of students, will require increased numbers of administrative personnel.⁴

Not only will there be an increased demand for the services of secondary school administrators in the next several years, but if reorganizations continue at the anticipated pace, there will be a premium placed on administrators with special kinds of skills. When a new secondary school is constructed subsequent to reorganization, it pulls a student body from several smaller schools. These students are characterized by considerable apprehension. They likely have had a diversity of experiences, many of them perhaps makeshift in nature, while the new school was in the process of being built. During the first year of operation of these new schools, then, the administrator needs to give serious attention to orientation and induction procedures in order to develop the sense of security from which productive learning so often results. Sanders, finding himself in this position of principal in such a new secondary school, undertook a study of the first year of operation.⁵ His experience is worthy of analysis by those who anticipate being in comparable positions.

During the next few years more "team players" in administration will be needed. Larger secondary schools will need coordinated administrative effort, for the days of the one-man autonomous operation are numbered. The abilities to plan, to delegate, to evaluate, to work together in a pooling of complementary skills will be valued attributes in the anticipated scene.

⁴ These data are based on statistics in the *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association (Vol. 36, No. 4 and Vol. 37, No. 1) Dec., 1958, and Feb., 1959.

⁵ Robert E. Sanders, *An Orientation Program for Students and Faculty Entering the New Licking Valley High School*, Hanover, Ohio (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, unpublished master's thesis, 1959).

MEANS OF SECURING POSITIONS

Qualifications

The most ostensible of the qualifications needed are those reflected in certification patterns. Certification, regulated in most places by the state department of education, is an effort to define the criteria for holding a position that are relatively easily measured. It represents professional college or university preparation in specified areas of study and years of experience. A more recent trend in certification patterns for the secondary school principalship is a more broadened one. Instead of requiring a master's degree in administration or a specified number of hours of work toward one, the specifications often call for some work in administration, supervision, the curriculum, and the role of the school in the social order or human growth and development. In addition to the hours of work in these areas, the requirements call for at least three years of successful classroom teaching, one of which must be at the secondary school level.⁶ The exact requirements vary from state to state, however, and it is wise for the aspiring administrator to check them as early as possible in the process of his preparation.

Applicants for positions in secondary school administration will also find that local criteria are often established in addition to the state certification requirement. If a certified person holds an administrative position, this fact will often entitle a district to a specified allocation from the state foundation program. Additional criteria often guarantee something of much more fundamental importance; namely, that the person selected has the characteristics that are considered to be important for the successful filling of a particular position. Some placement officers report, for instance, that boards of education are requesting the names of applicants who have work beyond the master's degree, who have a demonstrated ability to work in instructional leadership, who have strong public relations skills, and the like. For those who look forward to a career in secondary school administration, therefore, it is wise to confer with placement officers at the college or university of their attendance regarding the emerging pattern of requests. As students round out their graduate programs, then, there are opportunities to fill some voids in their preparation, thus enhancing their chances of ultimate selection.

⁶ These are an abstract of the requirements for the provisional high school principal's certificate in the state of Ohio, as of January 1, 1959.

Teaching Routes

Those who write speculatively about the science of administration often express the opinion that a person might be an excellent administrator in public education and yet never have had a day's classroom teaching experience. Further, it is also seemingly true that some excellent teachers, either rewarded for their good teaching or seeking additional rewards, usually of money or status, go into administration with miserable results both for themselves and for the schools they serve. Whatever the long-range implications of these factors may be, the current picture is that secondary school administrators pass first through the teaching ranks. For the professional rapport vital to the success of administration, as well as for some other reasons, it is probably well that this route exists.

Every teaching position has its administrative aspects. There is constant planning, delegating, coordinating, and appraising activity. With these component aspects of teaching, there is ample effort for the teacher to assess his own skills and satisfaction pattern in reference to these processes. If teaching brings satisfaction because it is a one-man effort, primarily, then this should be a clue that an administrative future would likely not be advisable. If, however, considerable satisfaction exists in having set the stage so that others can see relationships, comprehend problems, work individually and cooperatively toward their solution, then the evidence augurs well.

Further signs for the individual teacher to note are the following: Am I comfortable in positions of responsibility? Can I make needed decisions with dispatch, when they need to be made that way? Am I inclined to look for best evidence before deciding on a course of action? Do I enjoy working with adults at least as much as I like working with teenage youngsters? Do my interests in education go beyond my own subject-matter fields? Do I have a tolerance for frustration and ambiguity? Answers to these questions are vital to an individual considering a future in secondary school administration.

Given favorable responses to these and like questions, there is much that a teacher can do to gain administrative experience. Dozens of tasks that need leadership exist in every secondary school. Classes need advisors, dances need chaperones, extracurriculum activities need guidance and coordination, committees need volunteer members and often volunteer chairmen, to mention but a few. The energetic teacher, interested in testing his administrative potential, often finds ample opportunity to do

so by expressing interest in one or more of these activities to the principal. Many find opportunities in out-of-school functions as well, in church work, in service club activities, in civic ventures. Initiative and energy can supply the opportunities; a personal satisfaction pattern can supply the evidence.

Planned Graduate Program

When the first stirrings of interest occur, it is well to get a planned graduate program underway. The resourceful teacher will find ways to do this. Most universities offer work in the evenings and on Saturdays. Car pools reduce the expense of otherwise costly long trips if the university is some distance from the site of teaching. Some scholarship and assistantship money exists for the qualified individual who is assertive enough to pursue the trail.

Each beginning graduate student should start his program under the guidance of an advisor. This puts the program on a purposeful track from the outset. For the young teacher who will spend some years in the teaching field before venturing into administration, a master's degree in his teaching area often is most advisable. Elective hours, however, can be used to take introductory courses in administration. If enough electives exist, it is often possible to fulfill the certification requirements for administration and thus be ready for an opportunity when it ultimately arrives.

During the graduate program it is also advisable to revise credentials and to become acquainted with the placement officer. It is especially important to do this before leaving graduate school if one aspires to an administrative position. Thus, a personal touch is added to the otherwise rather cold set of data on a personnel record form.

Internal and External Promotion Routes

Often those who aspire to positions as secondary school administrators need to face the question of the most promising routes. Some relevant generalizations about the internal-external possibilities will, perhaps, aid those who have this problem.

Although there is no inflexible pattern, large city systems tend to select from within for all but their top-level administrative staff. This may be an unstructured process, but in many cases cadetship programs or other formal selection processes exist for this purpose. Because of the antici-

pated growth of this now relatively frequent practice, the administrative cadetship program is discussed in the following section. Medium-sized and smaller cities, as well as most smaller local school districts, usually go outside the system to select their secondary school administrators.

At first glance, it might appear that the advantages of internal promotion far outweigh the disadvantages. This is not necessarily true. In many cases a person must teach in a system for three to five years before he becomes eligible for serious consideration as a secondary school administrator. For the person who is young in the profession, this is no serious deterrent. For the older applicant, however, this route means a late start. Often, too, promotional routes are somewhat standardized in the larger systems. The first opportunity might be as assistant principal of one of the smaller junior high schools. Then, after a successful performance in this position, the next step would depend on what opportunities developed in the system. It might be a more responsible assistant principalship, at either the junior or senior high level, or it could be the principalship of a smaller junior high. Frequently it takes years for these opportunities to develop, because high mobility rates are not characteristic of secondary school administrators in city systems. However, there are some factors on the credit side as well. With the opportunity to begin as an assistant principal, administrative responsibility can be assumed gradually. Larger systems, too, are more apt to have written policies and procedures, which can act as guidelines. There are the obvious advantages of serving in a community that has become familiar through previous teaching experience. In itself, coming "up through the ranks" has advantages or disadvantages that are largely dependent on the person himself, in the final analysis. In a large city system, particularly where a well-established cadetship program exists, personal jealousies of unsuccessful applicants are rarely a problem. In the absence of a formal selection process, and where limited administrative positions in secondary schools exist, this factor can often operate. Serving as an administrator in a building in which one has formerly taught can have its hampering effects, but this is primarily a function of the individual's own adaptive mechanisms and other personal abilities. In many cases, if the environment is right, this kind of experience can be most rewarding and productive.

External promotion will likely continue to be the most prevalent route to secondary school administration, often because of the real or imagined harmful effects of inbreeding. Experience often enables an administrator to bring a fresh viewpoint to a school unhampered by resident

biases and custom. Whereas there are unique problems in each secondary school, knowledge about which is needed to do a successful job of administration, there are also many problems that are reasonably uniform from school to school. These are the component task areas in scheduling, reporting, attendance, finance, and the like. Having competence in the performance of these jobs will permit the new administrator to devote his time to building an acquaintance with the unique aspects of the position.

To tap the potential of external promotion possibilities, the applicant should have several things in readiness. Certification, where needed, should be accomplished and personnel folders completed in placement offices. Most important of all, the candidate should be able to communicate well about himself and about the problems in secondary school administration that he is likely to be asked in an interviewing situation. It is important to be able to state a value position in reference to problems without undue hesitation and equivocation.

The Administrative Cadetship

In the years following the end of World War II, the tremendous expansion of enrollments and building led to several new developments. Among them was the rapid growth of the administrative cadetship program. Largely designed to man the administrative positions anticipated in hundreds of planned elementary schools, the cadetship program offered to the city systems numerous other advantages as well. During interim periods, while new construction was underway or anticipated, those on cadetship programs were able to perform many specialized jobs at the central administrative level as well as to serve as a reinforcement pool for current administrators in times of illness or other special need. The program, too, grew because of an increasing realization of the vital importance of making the best possible administrative selections. A year, sometimes more or less, of guided experiences under the direction of skilled administrators provided a wealth of data about the cadet's potential for an administrative assignment.

Briefly, what are the components of the cadetship program? Most of the plans have a selection phase, the criteria for which are usually under constant revision. In most instances applicants must have from one to five years of successful classroom teaching experience in the system. Holding an administrative certificate or being in the process of securing one is likewise a criterion in most of these plans. In some instances the applicant

must possess a master's degree. Age is a more flexible criterion, but the candidate must usually be from twenty-five to forty-five years of age.

Most cities with a cadetship plan have a fixed time limit by which external criteria must be met and applications presented for processing. In larger districts, this deadline is an annual event. In places where the need is less constant, deadlines are established and announced when the program periodically is resumed. In many systems, after applications have been screened, a competitive examination is announced. Not all cities have this feature, but it is reasonably common. Sometimes the examination is developed by the employing system; in other cases consultants from outside the system are secured to conduct this phase of the process. In the latter instance, the consultants have developed their own examination batteries.⁷ After this phase, successful applicants are then interviewed in an administrative conference. Sometimes the interview is conducted by the superintendent, but it is more likely by the assistant superintendent of staff personnel or general administration and by others on the administrative selection committee named for this purpose.

Those who come through this process successfully are released from their teaching assignments and they begin, in most cases, a year's planned program of orientation and service. Often they receive the same remuneration that they would receive as a teacher. Cadets frequently spend several weeks in central office operations, becoming familiar with the over-all operation of the systems. In many instances, they work under the direction of an assistant superintendent on such specialized jobs as collecting data for the establishment of attendance district boundaries, purchasing supplies, and other tasks of this nature. The next phase of the program is often assignment to a principal or assistant principal in the system. There the cadet gets an opportunity to work in the kind of school in which he is likely to be an administrator. Usually, once a week at least, the cadets assemble in the central office to discuss their progress with the administrator in charge of the program. One modification of this practice was that used in Columbus, Ohio. For a period of six months, in addition to the weekly conference in the central office, cadets from the area met in a two-hour seminar each week with one of the authors. In those sessions some of the broad aspects of administration were discussed and the personal dimen-

⁷ W. R. Flesher and Marie Flesher have been active in this consultative process. For additional information, see their report, *A Procedure for Evaluating Prospective School Administrators, Supervisors, and Other Special Personnel* (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, The Ohio State University, 1959), mimeographed.

sions of leadership analyzed. This seminar seemed to provide balance between the broad and specific aspects of the program.

A note of caution is in order concerning cadetship programs. A system can easily find that it has developed a mass production operation. The real value of the cadetship program does not lie in turning out "replacable parts"; rather, the experience should sharpen the leadership sensitivities of an already able group of potential administrators. A constant appraisal of the cadetship program by the sponsoring system will enable it to stay alive and fulfill its function.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR CONTINUED PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

So far, the material presented in this chapter has a preparatory ring to it. The externals involved in preparing for a career as a secondary school administrator have been emphasized. These aspects are vital. Important as it is to the aspirant to get an initial opportunity to become a secondary school administrator, it is however of infinitely more importance to the profession and to the administrator himself that he have opportunities for continued growth once he becomes an incumbent of that role. The teaching staff or the secondary school itself can be dynamic, in the main, only if the administrator is alert, perceptive, and mindful of his own professional growth. Let us review some of the opportunities for this kind of continued development.

Building Autonomy

An accompaniment of the larger school district has been an increased realization of the diversity of the community it serves. Decentralization has been one organizational approach used in the attempt to enable the individual school to serve the needs of its attendance district better. Even districts of phenomenal size and complexity, such as Chicago, have found building autonomy valuable. Decentralization heightens the responsibility of the individual school. Often this means unique curriculum developments, special services, policies and operating procedures, all tooled especially for resident needs.

The principal is involved much more directly in staff selection, orientation, induction, and other professional development programs, because his school requires specialized personnel with unique competen-

cies. He is called upon to be the *district's interpreter of the characteristics and needs of the secondary school community*. This kind of leadership often demands that he be a student of curriculum. Certainly, it requires that he *understand sociological and economic phenomena*. To operate in this fashion requires continued study and constant professional growth.

Growth Through Associational Affiliation

Unfortunately, often the hardest work a secondary school administrator does of an associational nature is the annual drive to obtain 100 per cent staff affiliation. It is obvious that this effort alone does little to add to professional knowledge and skills. Regional and state organizations and the national organization, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, represent a rich resource for the alert administrator. At the national level, the available professional literature can keep the administrator *abreast of the problems common to secondary school administrators* at large and alert to challenging experiments that are reported by his colleagues. The national organization, too, offers the best single source for professional upgrading through policy development, refinement of ethical positions, and stimulation of research effort. In state associations of secondary school principals machinery is available for preparation data needed in legislative development, for cooperative activities with state departments of education, and for program development of annual conventions.

Although many will find profitable outlets for their energies at the national and state levels, it is in the regional association that the greatest numbers of secondary school administrators find opportunities for professional growth. The regional association can be particularly sensitive to the needs of its members. Meeting once each month or six weeks with those colleagues he knows well, the secondary school administrator can do a great deal personally to push these meetings beyond a social plane. In fact, many regional principals' associations already have a long and distinguished record of professional service. Many of them have initiated discussion group projects, focusing on those topics of very practical concern to the members. Study groups have gathered data for consideration at the meetings, and consultants have frequently been invited to bring their special competencies to the programs. Recent promising developments have been the structuring of these meetings as *inservice workshops*, at which perceptive looks have been taken, over time, at the human relations aspects of leadership.

Too often administrators confine their activities in various professional associations to a narrow base. Much is to be gained by broadening into related fields. It is very desirable for the secondary school administrator to affiliate with and work actively in such organizations as the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. To perform his responsibilities in curriculum leadership, the secondary school administrator must know, by involvement, what new understandings and skills are being developed by such associations.

Plan of Continuous Professional Development

Although professional development is a state of mind, it must get beyond this stage and take on structural aspects. The difference between the successful and unsuccessful administrator, often, is that the successful one has a somewhat systematic plan for his professional growth. Such plans usually have both internal and external phases to them.

The internal aspect refers to those activities he undertakes day-by-day on the job. They are based on his own keen interest in personal growth. A staff, once it works with an administrator for even a short period of time, knows whether he is interested in self-improvement. Through mutual respect and demonstrated warmth of personality, a rapport can be established that permits two-way evaluation. In an atmosphere of good will, a staff whose members have learned to trust one another can give and take. It is a false concept of status to consider oneself to be beyond the pale of evaluation. Where those right relationships have been established, many secondary school administrators ask the staff at intervals to check them on such items as, "Do I seem to appear too busy, and thus 'scare off' your wish to discuss a matter with me?" "Are activities planned sufficiently well in advance to permit the scheduling of your own affairs?" "Are communications from my office clear?" "Am I sufficiently alert to those things that will facilitate your teaching?" When such administrative appraisal is welcomed and constructive suggestions acted upon, doors are opened for a much more meaningful evaluation of teaching.

Other aspects of the secondary school principal's work are best appraised by his own administrative superiors, although such appraisal often comes only if the administrator seeks it. Appraisal is often facilitated if the administrator prepares a list of areas about which he is particularly concerned and with which he wants professional help. This list serves a double purpose. It lends structure to the appraisal conference with the

superintendent or assistant superintendent, and it illustrates that more is wanted and needed than a reassuring pat on the back.

Often this appraisal can best be made if it is done along lines of previous goal-setting. As an administrator looks ahead to the next year's operation, certain things can be pegged for accomplishment. Benchmarks can be made to indicate progress along these lines, then, during the year. This type of planning greatly facilitates self-assessment.

There are external phases of a professional development plan, too. Preparation for a position in secondary school administration certainly does not terminate with the acquisition of certification or a master's degree. Recognition of this is seen in recent action by the American Association of School Administrators, at its 1959 convention. At that time a constitutional amendment was passed requiring that those who apply for membership after 1964 must have completed two years of graduate study. Aimed primarily at superintendents, this amendment can also guide the secondary school administrator as well. With the complexity of administration likely to increase, advanced graduate study can equip those with a commitment for professional growth to perform better their administrative functions. A desirable pattern, perhaps, for those who wish to develop a plan for personal growth is to undertake a master's program relatively early in their professional careers. This program should be broad-based, with the primary focus on the individual's teaching field if he has not yet entered administration. Elective hours might be used to pick up requirements for administrative certification. Shortly after becoming a secondary school administrator, then, it would be well to resume graduate study, this time taking depth courses in such administrative specialties as school law, finance, and business management. Reflecting the increasing demand for advanced graduate study, some universities are developing two-year programs in educational administration. In addition to depth courses, a promising development of these programs is a year's seminar in which the coordinated aspects of administration are analyzed in problem settings.

In increasing numbers, however, secondary school administrators are serving on ten-and-one-half or eleven months assignments. This, of course, makes extended summer participation in graduate programs very difficult. Study possibilities are not eliminated, however, for many one- and two-week workshops are given at convenient times for the participants. In addition, many colleges and universities are developing one-day workshops throughout the school year. Pegged to a very specific topic of

considerable interest, these experiences are a valuable way to do the forefront thinking demanded in a dynamic profession.

Opportunities in Civic Involvements

Quite characteristically, school-related activities with the parents of secondary school youngsters tend to cluster around specific rather than broad educational activities. The parent-teacher relationships that typify the elementary schools seem to wane. Frequently, the coaches come in contact with the parents of athletes, or the band director will meet with band parents' organizations. There are not too many occasions, however, when the secondary school administrator meets systematically with groups of parents or other patrons of the community. The resulting distance is often detrimental to the public relations of the secondary schools and deprives the administrator of a source of professional growth.

Perhaps the size factor of many secondary schools has proved to be a deterrent to general meetings of parents and teachers. If this is the case, there are effective ways of working productively other than face-to-face meetings with the entire group. Some secondary schools, for example, have organized study councils comprising selected, representative parents and nonparents of the community, representatives of the teaching staff, and the administrator. With this smaller group, then, problems of special concern have been studied, data have been gathered and communicated to the general public, and recommendations have been arrived at for the consideration of the board of education, the teaching staff, and the parents themselves.

Secondary school administrators must use their ingenuity to discover ways of working productively with parents and nonparents in the community. Professional growth is likely to result, because these activities make the administrator a more sensitive interpreter of the community and its needs and a more skillful worker with adult groups.

Whereas the kind of involvement about which we have been writing is important, there are yet other kinds of involvements of particular importance. Civic planning ventures are becoming more and more prevalent. Communities are working together to take a careful look at their own problems and possible ways of solving them. The secondary schools need to be involved in that kind of planning, for clearly evident reasons. Often cooperative arrangements can be developed for use of recreational facilities. Opportunities, too, can be discovered for meaning-

ful learning experiences for secondary school students. Most of all, however, the involvement of the administrator and other members of the staff demonstrate quite clearly that the secondary school personnel are interested in wider community affairs than those immediately concerned with the profession itself. Turning outward, then, is yet another way of continued professional growth.

CONCLUSION

Professional opportunities in secondary school administration exist particularly for the person who, in making a realistic assessment of his potential in this field, develops a positive program of preparation. As a teacher, he seeks assignments that can strengthen his administrative skills. As a graduate student, he plans a program with his adviser that is most meaningful in terms of his professional goals.

For the practicing administrator, opportunities exist for continued professional development by working as sensitively as possible in those areas where he has autonomy, by participating in the activities of his professional associations, by cooperating in civic affairs, and by maintaining sincere, open relationships with those who work with him to develop the type of evaluation that permits ongoing growth.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Consult the latest educational directory published by your state department of education. Check the different kinds of secondary school organizational patterns. How many administrative positions are there in these different classifications?
2. Assume that the secondary school administrators in a city system have been asked to conduct a study of the components that should be considered in developing a new administrative salary schedule. If you were a member of such a committee, what factors would you wish to investigate?
3. What community resources exist in the community where you live that seem particularly promising for secondary school administrators to tap? What kinds of cooperative involvements seem particularly promising?
4. Develop a plan for your own professional growth for the next three years. How did you determine what your strengths and weaknesses are in the process of developing this plan?

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THE ADMINISTRATIVE TEAM

TEAMWORK IS IMPERATIVE IN THE modern administrative organization. Size, complexity, functional expectancies, distribution of responsibilities, specialization of function, operational patterns, concerns over efficiency and organizational structuring of enterprises, all have brought on a proliferation of administrative positions, titles, assignments, and responsibilities. The one-man show in administration is as outdated as the Model T Ford. Even if we were to ignore size and modern organization and construct for ourselves an administrative job that could conceivably pass as a one-man operation, we would be obliged to take into account the findings of research in the administrative and behavioral sciences, which indicate several advantages of shared responsibility and involvement of others in the administrative processes. Can you imagine a situation, involving several people, where one man can effectively do all the decision-making, the programming, the stimulating, the coordinating, and the appraising? Note we have used the word "effectively." Yet you will probably say, "Yes, I know of a situation in a high school just exactly as described like that, where the principal does the thinking for everybody." So do we. Let us look at one.

This particular situation involves a small high school where the

principal, a benevolent dictator, ran a fair high school until two or three years ago, when he retired. The staff had learned to love the old man. Nothing was done without his specific approval. He delegated no authority. He saw no need for study committees or any other kinds of committees. When he had to be out of town, no one was in charge, except perhaps his secretary, who second-guessed for him part of the time. He did not want an assistant principal and saw no need for department heads or any other administrative assistance. Under his philosophy of leadership and administration the administrative processes were his responsibility and his alone. He had no concern about teamwork, administrative or otherwise.

Three years ago this principal was succeeded by a young man with limited administrative experience but with many theories of staff involvement in administration and a somewhat naive belief in the group process. His theory was to relegate completely the administrative process to committee action, to what he called shared responsibility and involvement in administration. But he had inherited a staff with a minimum of experience in sharing in decision-making, planning, coordinating, and appraising.

His first act was to create a series of committees and committee chairman with delegated responsibilities and authorities. Staff members, accustomed to the old procedures, began taking their problems to the new principal only to be told that the problem would have to be brought before a certain committee for action. Committees began making decisions that created new problems, for which more committees were established. In some instances, one committee countermanded the decisions of another committee. The entire process became so involved that one teacher was heard to say that to get permission to put a thumbtack in the bulletin board called for a committee meeting. On the side the staff members began calling the new principal "Committeecitus Jones." After two years in the position Jones saw fit to move on, we hope a wiser man for the experiences he had encountered.

The situation described here was extreme in that it involved two distinctly opposite points of view on teamwork and staff involvement in administration and secondly that an experienced staff was called upon to make a radical shift in operation. Any observer could detect the factors in the situation described that eventually lead to a failure of what might normally be considered good administrative practice. The most obvious thing, of course, is that teamwork is rarely the result of accident; it must be anticipated, planned for, and constantly nurtured. The new principal plummeted his staff into a theoretical framework of operation far beyond

their experience and without proper readiness, planning, programming, and coordination. Given another year or two, things might have worked out for him, but in the meantime he lost the staff's respect as an administrator and leader.

IDEAS ON ADMINISTRATION

Although this book is directed toward school administration and particularly toward secondary school administration, the students should see this *special field in relation to the work of administrators generally*. Obviously, whenever men engage in purposeful activity of any sort they organize it, sometimes to lighten the work involved, sometimes to improve or increase achievement and productivity. Men organize even their simplest tasks.

Take a simple job, such as sorting apples, involving only one person, apples, and containers. The job is relatively simple: put the red apples in one box, the green ones in another, and the culls in a third. Yet a man learns that through simple analysis and experience he can make the work easier by rearranging the containers with reference to himself and the pile of apples. So he organizes his work.

If organization works for one man and his job, organization works for a team of workers. With several workers on the job there can be a division of labor, which provides opportunities for each person to perform the tasks most commensurate with his particular skills. The size and complexity of the operation magnify the place and importance of organization and administration. The assembly line requires planning, coordination, timing, and attention to details; that is, it requires organization. Hence, it is clear that the processes of *organization and administration* are closely interrelated, and the larger the enterprise, the greater the need for organization and administration.

The Factor of Bigness

Competition, costs, efficiency standards, population trends, urbanization, and other socioeconomic factors appear to be pushing us relentlessly toward "bigness." We are moving from small, inefficient administrative units to larger administrative units, larger factories, mergers and combines that make ever greater demands on organization and administration. It is certain that some school organizations are too small to provide economical optimum educational opportunities and services. The authors believe a

good secondary school requires an enrollment of at least 500 students. With a smaller enrollment, a quality program becomes exorbitantly expensive. There is little evidence that indicates optimum relationships of size to effectiveness, but there is evidence that indicates that the problems of organization, management, and administration definitely increase with the size and complexity of an enterprise.

The Administrative Function

Organization and administration are interrelated and interdependent. Organization can be defined as a phase of the process of effectively accomplishing purposes whose achievement requires the continuous physical and mental output that we call work. The other phase of this process is administration. The organizational phase deals with making arrangements that permit the beginning of purpose realization. Sometimes organization is, in effect, reorganization. Sometimes it is coordination. "The major purpose of organization is coordination," says Luther Gulick.¹

The administrative phase of the process of purpose achievement is concerned with the conduct, operation, control, and management of the enterprise as organized so that the purposes continue to be satisfied. Thus, the two phases complement each other. In reality, the organization phase logically precedes the administrative phase. The school administrator is accountable for both phases; and in practice he combines the two concepts into "administration."

Major Tasks

So far we have explored some general aspects of administration and organization, which are applicable to both educational and noneducational enterprises. The administrative process as applied to educational administration was explored in detail in Chapter 3. Again, Chapter 8 focused on administrative tasks of the secondary school principal. Broadly conceived, the task areas in educational administration are (1) school-community relationships, (2) curriculum development, (3) pupil personnel, (4) staff personnel, (5) physical facilities, (6) finance and business management, and (7) organization and structure.² These are broad areas in which the

¹ Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick (eds.), *Papers on the Science of Administration* (New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University, 1937), p. 33.

² Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramsever, *Introduction to Educational Administration* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958), p. 85.

principal will find many specific tasks to perform. Obviously he cannot and will not perform all of these tasks *himself*. Here is where organization enters the picture. There must be a division of labor. The administrator may have an assistant principal, who will have charge of pupil personnel and other assignments. There will probably be heads of departments. There will be assistance from the central office on matters of curriculum. A staff member may be assigned part-time to some aspects of school-community relations and so on. What really exists in such a situation is a team of workers, each with specific tasks to perform, all directed toward achieving the over-all purposes of the school.

It is this team approach that we wish to discuss in the pages to follow. The principal is the key man in the team. The qualities, expectancies, and traits of a good leader have been discussed in detail in previous chapters. Our attention here will be focused on the concept of administrative teamwork, components of the team, teamwork techniques, pitfalls in administrative teamwork, and administrative responsibilities in the team approach to administration.

CONCEPT OF ADMINISTRATIVE TEAMWORK

Teamwork is not a new concept; it requires no elaborate definition. Experience in teamwork constantly teaches us new things about the dynamics of corporate effort. One coach described his football team recently in these words, "We have a lot of good talent out there and the boys are willing and work hard but they just have not 'jelled' as a team yet." What did he mean—"jelled"? Not being coaches, we can only imagine that he meant that the boys needed experience in learning their individual assignments, coordinating their assignments with each other, learning what to expect of each other player, and timing the operation to execute the play with smoothness and finesse. There are many good administrative teams that are in much the same situation as was the football team just described—good talent, able, willing, but not "jelled" as yet.

Identification of the Total Objective

In football, the ultimate objective is scoring. This is true in spite of what we sometimes hear about the character-building objectives of the sport. In educational administration the total objective is more involved and complicated, for it is the sum of a number of subobjectives. Sometimes

the subobjective overshadows the larger objective or gets lost in the day-to-day operations. For instance, economy is sometimes placed ahead of what might be best for boys and girls, or, on the other hand, ignored. Often this is a matter of attitude or the lack of a proper attitude. The principal, the department head, or any other member of the administrative team feels burdened with his responsibilities and opines, "I have enough worries running my own show and I cannot be bothered with the broader aspects of administration in this school system." This is obviously a limited view of the total objective, which definitely hampers the individual's effectiveness as a member of the administrative team. It is the specific duty of the administrator, then, to help each team member gain a clear understanding of the total objectives and those attitudes that will make him an effective contributor to the group effort.

Total Objective as a Discipline

Crash programs and tremendous team efforts have wrought miraculous developments in this age of atomic energy and man-made satellites orbiting about in the universe. In these efforts the total objective was very clear to every man involved. Many talents were brought together, briefed thoroughly on the main objective, briefed on the subobjectives of each member of the team, and then directed to come through with results that made sense. Although the process was undoubtedly much more complicated than this brief analysis would indicate, it has implications for educational administrative teamwork.

After a certain accomplishment in one of these programs, one of the team workers was asked what it was that kept the team working and trying, failing and trying again, until ultimate success. His answer is worthy of note; he said it was the discipline of the ultimate objective. Every man knew that everything depended on his small part of the project working and functioning perfectly, and that failure anywhere was failure for the entire objective. Thus, the ultimate objective was the driving discipline that motivated every member of the team to do his utmost and best.

Providing quality education may not be as glamorous as producing a space station, but it is an objective capable of taxing, challenging, and disciplining the best minds and talents available for its realization.

Delegation

Every man on the team must have a specifically delegated assignment, a clear understanding of his role, an understanding of the roles of the other

players. Everyone must operate within the limits of his prescribed responsibility. Normally, in the school situation, titles reflect the duties, roles, and responsibilities of various administrative personnel; but this cannot be taken for granted. At this very moment, many assistant principals in secondary schools throughout the country are just not sure of where their authority and responsibilities begin or end. No clear-cut job analysis has been made, and the delegation of responsibilities to them has been left pretty much to chance. There are some definite things for which the assistant principal is responsible—attendance, substitute teachers, records, and the like, but there are many areas in which the assistant's role may not be clear. These areas are the sources of trouble and frustration. A person can hardly be an effective member of the team when he is unsure of his role, when he hesitates or feels that he has to clear with the man above before he acts.

The successful administrator delegates. He makes sure that the person to whom responsibility and authority are delegated understands. He also insists that the delegation is respected by himself and others, that is, that the areas of delegated responsibility are not invaded by others or by himself.

Communication

Few things are more disastrous to team effort than to have communications break down. Communication must be tridimensional—upward, downward and lateral. That is, the flow must be to and from communicants and shared with others as the situation requires. It is the responsibility of the administrator to see that channels of communication are established and that they are used effectively and efficiently. Knower and Wagner, in studying communications in educational administration, found that administrators checked the following communications problems more frequently than teachers:

- Know that he may be a poor judge of his own communication.
- Understand that failure to respond to a communication may arise from differences in interpretation as well as from its opposition.
- Provide opportunities for regular communication among subordinates.
- Blame others for his own failures in communication.
- Make use of his position to seek out and provide sources of information about communication and its nature which helps his people improve.
- Clearly show the reasons for his decisions and policies.
- Talk in a manner that clearly fits the purpose of his communication.

Select a time and place for the communication carefully because of the meaning they add to the message.

Talk or write about a problem which he can correct by more satisfactory direct action.

Show that he realizes that subordinates are especially alert to all physical cues and nonverbal signals.

Use communication to prevent as well as solve conflicts.

Know that in communication success depends on whether others accept him.

Make use of visual aids, charts, diagrams, and sketches.

Keep a record of all communication and decisions of policy.

See to it that official papers and reports concerning the school are carefully edited.

Use many methods of communication because no one method meets all needs.

Fix responsibility for special types of communication and/or delegate them to persons most able to carry them out.

Give new direction and motivation for a program which has bogged down.

Show appreciation for cooperation of fellow workers.³

The findings of this study, although appropriate to the general problems of communications in administration, appear to indicate perceptiveness to concerns about communications in the administrative team effort. In essence, there just cannot be effective teamwork without good communication.

Characteristics of Teamwork

Volumes have been written on teamwork and its various facets, and it is somewhat presumptuous on our part to summarize all the good ideas here in a paragraph or two. However, a brief recapitulation of some of the important characteristics follows:

1. Teamwork should demonstrate effective leadership.
2. Team members should have a predisposition to work as a team.
3. A democratic atmosphere should prevail.
4. A high level of cooperation should be maintained.
5. Full and effective communications should prevail.
6. There should be mutual acceptance of the goals of the team.

³ Franklin H. Knower and Paul H. Wagner, *Communication In Educational Administration* (Columbus, Ohio: Center for Educational Administration, The Ohio State University, 1959), p. 157.

7. There should be high morale.
8. Team members should have faith in each other.
9. Mutual respect for members of the team should exist.
10. A high degree of dedication to goals and purposes should exist.
11. There should be acceptance of individual responsibilities for furthering team objectives.
12. Clear definitions of roles and assignments of team members should exist.
13. The team members should be able to adjust to the new and unexpected.
14. Team members should continually evaluate and assess team effort.
15. There should be signs of high motivation.
16. Team members should demonstrate good coordination.
17. The team should achieve respect and backing by earning it.
18. The team should rise above unfavorable circumstances.
19. The team should demonstrate ability for decisive action.
20. The team should make use of experience to improve and refine practices.

An administrative team that scores high on these characteristics is well on its way to success.

THE TEAM

A team, by common definition, is a group of people organized to work co-operatively to accomplish a purpose or objective. This presumes a division of labor; a one-horse team cannot exist. There are always two or more people involved in any team effort, with all of the psychological and sociological implications of a group—social interaction, shared responsibility, give and take, leadership transfer, dependence, to mention just a few. The team imposes its own social controls upon itself and responds as well to exterior social controls. Team members have expectancies of other members of the group; at the same time, others outside of the team have expectancies of the team as a unit. Also, there may be other teams that have expectancies of a team or group.

All this takes on meaning as we relate it to the over-all administrative team operation in the school system, which includes central administration, the high schools, junior high schools, elementary schools, and any other of the subdivisions; the administrative team of the secondary school or any other individual unit; and the relations and interactions of these several administrative teams in the system with each other and the over-all

administrative team. It sounds complicated and it is. Although our primary concern is with the administrative team of the secondary school, we must see it in relation to the whole social system in which it functions.

The Central Administrative Team

The over-all administrative team for the school system, often referred to as the superintendent's cabinet, usually includes the top administrative heads—assistant superintendents, supervisors, principals, directors, and the like. In a very real sense, the superintendent's team has the administrative responsibilities for the complete educational enterprise in the community.

As a major unit in the school system, the secondary school is represented on the superintendent's administrative team through the secondary school principal. Although the concerns of this group generally are those of the entire system, many decisions are made that affect the secondary school. Issues involving coordination, general policy-making and interpretation, articulation, supervision, curriculum development, public relations, finance, organization, and other over-all phases of operation and control make up the bulk of agenda items for the central administration team.

The secondary school principal has a dual team role to play here. In one instance, he has the responsibility for representing the secondary school on the central administrative team. On the other hand, he must identify himself with the unit or school administrative team as a member and leader. He must maintain loyalties to both of his team activities. This is not always an easy task.

The principal is expected to represent his school in his role on the central administrative team. However, he must be conscious of other divisions and units in the organization and of the over-all purposes and concerns of the system. This does not mean that the principal should be a complete neutral, but it does suggest that being a good member of the central team poses problems and situational difficulties that must be appreciated and understood by the principal, the central administrative team, the secondary school staff, and the community.

The Secondary School Administrative Team

The autocratic type of secondary school administration is passé. In its place is democratic leadership, with wide involvement in decision-making, policy formulation, and administration. Naturally, the first essential to the

democratic process in any situation is a predisposition of all, and especially of the status leader, to operate and function under principles and policies conducive to democracy. Occasionally, some staff members, tired with committee meetings and group decision-making, question wide staff involvement in administration. Fortunately, the majority of staff members want the opportunity to share in matters concerning them.

Who should be on the secondary school administrative team? In the very small school, this is not a major problem. Everyone on the staff has a face-to-face relationship with the principal and practically every teacher can be included in a team approach.

The large secondary school, with many staff members, presents a more difficult situation with regard to involvement in administration. Without necessarily being designated as such, the nucleus of the administrative team in the large school consists of the titled administrative staff—assistant principals, deans, directors, and the like.

Many principals desire more involvement in the administrative team and have worked out a variety of measures to bring more staff members in on decision-making affecting the school and faculty. We shall examine two such plans, among many, that appear to have proven satisfactory and operable.

HOUSE PLAN IN A HIGH SCHOOL. Brookline, Massachusetts, has a secondary school with an enrollment of about 2200 students. As the principal explored ideas for staff involvement and representation on the administrative team, he borrowed an idea from Harvard College—the House Plan.⁴ The school was divided into four subadministrative units, one for each grade level. The “housemasters” are chosen from the school faculty; each has an assistant of the opposite sex, chosen from the faculty of each house. In the Brookline version of this plan, housemasters teach part time and are given some extra compensation for the extra duty involved in their administrative roles. This plan places eight additional members on the principal’s administrative team, along with regularly titled administrative personnel. The plan clearly extends the involvement of staff on the administrative team and provides an orderly way of determining team membership.

Imaginative principals will find many ways of implementing the above idea. Grade levels are only one of several more or less natural classifications that might be considered in a large school. One secondary school

⁴ Ernest R. Caverly, “House Plan in a High School, *School Executive*, November 1959, p. 54.

has worked out a similar scheme based on a functional division—academic, vocational, and general courses offered by the large comprehensive school. In this instance, the directors of divisions are elected by staff and hold status equal to that of the assistant principal. These directors teach part time and receive extra remuneration for extra duty as members of the administrative team.

PRINCIPAL'S ADMINISTRATIVE ADVISORY COUNCIL. Both large and small secondary schools have successfully used some form of a principal's advisory council to extend the team concept of administration and provide wider involvement in the process. In one school, with an enrollment of 1400 students and a staff of 65 teachers, an advisory council of ten is elected by staff to serve on the administrative team.⁵ Elections are for two years, with five new members elected each year, thus providing continuity in the group. The council meets regularly with the administrative personnel of the school. Their function is advisory rather than legislative. Administrative concerns and problems are placed before them for review and consultation. Likewise, members of the council bring up matters that have come to their attention. Minutes are kept of all proceedings. Ultimate responsibilities and decisions, however, are assumed by the principal, according to his legal responsibility as head of the school, but with the aid of a representative team of advisors closely allied to the operations of the school.

Occasionally, where it seems advisable, officers of the student government association are asked to sit in with the council to present student points of view. For instance, when the traditional "Hobo Day," (a surprise day, which usually coincided with other evidences of spring fever, when students would come to school dressed as hobos) seemed to be going to extremes, the advisory council and the student council worked out a "Dress-up Day," which proved to be much more satisfactory to all.

In the same situation, the principal involved parents on the administrative team through the development of a Parents' Advisory Council. Through homeroom meetings eight parents from each grade level were elected to serve on the Council. This group meets with the principal on call or at stipulated meetings quarterly throughout the school year. Here, again, the group is advisory rather than legislative, but it often assumes the role of an action group in marshaling parent assistance for school functions and affairs.

⁵ Shorewood High School, Shorewood, Wisconsin.

On some major administrative concerns, such as planning a new building, the annual prom, student driving and safety, the principal calls into action parent, student, and staff advisory groups to work as a team in assisting in decision-making and policy formulation.

The secondary school administrative team, as envisioned here, may assume a variety of forms. These are the *mechanics of implementing the idea*. The alert principal will give leadership in providing ways to extend involvement in administrative functions and processes. There is great need for experimentation and refinement of techniques for involving people in team efforts to improve constantly the effectiveness of administration in secondary education.

PITFALLS

A number of what appeared to be good examples of administrative teamwork have run into difficulties because certain precautions were not observed. There are many situations, circumstances, acts of commission and omission that spell trouble for team activity. Many of these obstacles are obvious; others are *more deepseated and subtle*. Many times they take the form of a creeping paralysis that gains momentum and accomplishes much harm before it is discovered.

Size

The number involved in the team activity has a direct relation to the potential for difficulties in the team operation. In a simple matter, such as scheduling meetings, it is much harder for a large group than for a small group to find a time when all can get together. If meetings are held with several absences, communication breaks down, the team is deprived of the contributions of the absentees, absentees have to be briefed on what took place at the last meeting, and so on. Thus, although wide involvement in the team effort is a desirable goal, of itself it poses possible difficulties in scheduling, communication, and coordination. Group productivity and possibilities for effective interaction break down in large groups unless extreme care is exercised.

Although there are certain obstacles to effective teamwork in the large group, confining administrative teamwork to a small group also has its distinct disadvantages. *Disenfranchisement cuts deeply*. Even though advantages of representation, once provided, are not exercised as well as might be desired, it is better to have provided the opportunity. For ex-

ample, a likely trap for the principal to fall into is to select a few of the experienced members of the staff to confide in and use as an inner cabinet. When the newer teachers find they are being left out on decision-making, a staff rift is in the making. In such a situation, not only the size of the group but also its exclusiveness was a factor. Clearly, then, size and representativeness are factors to be carefully considered.

Faulty Communication

Effective communication has been mentioned as a necessary ingredient to effective teamwork. Faulty communication is devastating to teamwork. Two aspects of communication that are subject to shortcomings are communication within the group and communication between the group and the larger community it serves. Unless high level communication is maintained between members of the group, effective teamwork cannot be sustained; faulty communication between the administrative team and those it serves tends to nullify much of the team effort.

Losing Sight of Major Purposes

Major purposes have a way of getting lost in everyday operations. One of the responsibilities of the principal is to assist the administrative team to keep purposes and major objectives clearly in focus, to recognize attainment of goals, and to establish new targets. Occasionally it is an individual on the team who needs assistance in keeping the goal in sight.

Conflicts In Job Analysis

Careful attention to job analysis and the resolution of conflicts arising from misunderstandings about responsibilities may be necessary now and then in order to maintain effective administrative teamwork. Here is one scheme that has worked for some. A member of the team, faced with the possibility of conflict as to tasks and responsibility does three things: (1) lists in writing the things for which he feels he is responsible and for which he feels he is in full authority to make decisions; (2) lists in writing the things for which he feels responsibility and about which he makes decisions, but for which he feels the necessity for reporting his actions to his superior; and (3) lists in writing the responsibilities and actions that he feels are his, but for which he must seek clearance before taking the action. These are then discussed with his superior, conflicts resolved, and agreements reached.

Whether the conflict is between the team and a member or between an individual and his superior, a review of the lists described above may clear up many misunderstandings, which, if unresolved, have adverse effects.

Indefinite Delegation

Delegation of responsibilities is sometimes tenuous and indefinite. The earliest signs of difficulty in this regard should be dealt with promptly if a deteriorating effect on teamwork is to be avoided. There should be complete understanding with regard to whom responsibilities are assigned.

A wise administrator avoids putting his team to maximum tests until it is seasoned. Experience helps the team to see its potentials, its weaknesses and mistakes, and its most effective operational patterns. Smooth, well-coordinated administrative teamwork requires continuous attention and maintenance.

The team or group is a living social organization, subject to the many psychological and sociological phenomena. The principal, the leader of the team, must be a student of the group process, skilled in the dynamics of group leadership, and constantly reappraising his role and efforts to use the team approach in administration of the school.

INTEGRITY OF LEADERSHIP

What of all this democracy and teamwork in administration? Are we envisioning the principal as merely a glorified chairman? Must everything be decided by committee, by teams? Where is the integrity of leadership? How does it function in the administrative team concept?

These are reasonable questions. The value and effectiveness of administrative teamwork is largely dependent on how the administrator conceives his leadership role with the group, the quality of leadership given the administrative team, and the integrity of the leader.

Unloading

Integrity of leadership is not maintained where the leader chooses to unload responsibility and blame on the administrative team. This is likewise true of all members of the team. Instances have been known where the principal, after being a party to making a decision, when faced with enforcing and implementing it, comes up with this explanation, "This is not

necessarily my idea; in fact, I am in complete sympathy with your point of view, but it is policy and all I can do is be guided by it." This is not integrity. Once a decision was made and he was a party to it on the administrative team, he is obligated to support it. He might have said, "We realized that there are several points of view on this matter. These were discussed and weighed but the decision is this, and we will be guided by the decision."

The administrator who hides behind the group process in decision-making is a weakling. He runs grave risks of losing any respect he may have as a status leader, to say nothing of the respect held for him as a functional leader. The same is true for any member of the administrative team.

Extending Administrative Service

Administration has a service function to perform in any organization. Unless the administrative team extends and augments this service function it has missed the goal. The principal should not look upon his administrative team as a "buck passing" mechanism to assume his role and function. Rather, it should be an assist, an aid, an extension to provide better the services intended and expected. It is not an administration by committee, but an administration by a principal aided by a representative committee in arriving at decisions affecting the entire group.

In spite of all the assistance he can muster from wide and devious sources, ultimate decisions are the prerogative and responsibility of the principal. He must have the integrity to assume his role to the best of his ability.

CONCLUSION

Shared responsibility for administration has become an imperative in modern administrative organization. The demands and dimensions of administrative services require the team approach.

Both in business and education, shared responsibility for administrative services will grow and increase with the ever-mounting complexity of organizations. Much more needs to be learned about administrative team operation. Effective involvement of persons for any function is a complex task. There are tremendous opportunities for secondary school principals to exercise imagination and experimentation leading to new knowledge, improved techniques, and more efficiency in the practical operation of administrative teamwork as related to the secondary school.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. What factors should be taken into consideration in selecting individuals to serve on an administrative team?
2. To what extent and under what circumstances is every staff person a part of the administrative team?
3. What would you suggest to improve the situation in the secondary school discussed earlier in the chapter, where Mr. Jones has assumed the principalship?
4. What pitfalls to administrative teamwork, other than those discussed in this chapter, do you see?
5. Why is maintenance such a vital factor in the smooth operation of the administrative team?
6. What are some of the ways in which an administrative team can be truly an extension of administrative service?

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CAREER CHALLENGES

FOR THE NIMBLE OF MIND, tomorrow is exciting and challenging, primarily because today is seldom stultifying and humdrum. The student of secondary school administration who is enthusiastic can approach a future in this profession with full knowledge that its problems will challenge his creative best. Secondary school administration is a career in itself; no longer is it merely a step toward the superintendency. For those who sense the stimulation of working with the educational problems of the teenage student, a position in secondary school administration can be a professional home.

CURRENT PROBLEMS

The secondary school administrator whose major satisfaction lies in looking beyond the next hill for anticipated challenges, often stumbles over the exciting ground through which he passes day-by-day. Lest the focus narrow solely to the future challenges, let us examine those that confront the profession currently.

Traditional Commitments

Every profession, at any given point in time, has its value positions. In a profession, such as education, that is responsible to the people it serves,

these value positions are seldom developed by the professionals alone. Rather, they represent the admixture of thinking that occurs over time in a society. In a society characterized by idealism and broad principles, the job of interpretation, implementation, evaluation, and continued growth is often a most difficult one. If the principle is a good one, it usually survives the vicissitudes of the years. To survive, though, it must be reworked and revitalized. This is particularly true when the principle seems to be in conflict with others likewise prized by the culture. Let us examine one or two of these values for their relevance to the current challenge confronting secondary school administrators.

To educate all of the children of all of the people is a prized value in our society, and universal compulsory attendance laws have been passed to provide concrete evidence of its acceptance. As long as this principle was an ideal on the banner of those who marched against vested privilege, it gained reasonably steady momentum. Now that we are close to realizing the ideal, it is being assailed, particularly by those who view with alarm the upward extension of the principle. Competition is also highly valued in our society, and responsible positions are to be won by those who show more ability and drive than many of their fellows. Thus, those who appear to profit little by secondary school education—the dullards, the maladjusted, the rebels, the lazy—are having their right to this education challenged. National tensions and the mounting financial costs of education cause the principle of universal education to be questioned more and more.

Not only does the pressure to modify our position on universal education come from outside the profession; pressure is exerted from within as well. Tough promotion policies are called for. Standards take on increased rigor. Traditional academic subjects are seen as the province of the able. It is urged that those who do not realize that secondary school education is a privilege to be respected and earned by hard work should be flunked out. It is not our purpose to debate the pros and cons of these trends and countertrends. Rather, we say that those who serve as secondary school administrators will not be able to dodge them. They can neither bend to the prevailing winds nor take a value position without cognizance of pertinent issues.

That education is primarily a matter of local concern is another principle long valued in our society. Pressures from the national and state levels have been resisted with vigor. In many school districts the

major source of funds is still the local tax dollar. Local boards of education, in countless ways, affect markedly the quality of education. There are, however, two developments that will affect this situation. The local property tax is working overtime in many communities, and administrators must spend increasing amounts of time in efforts to raise money from local sources for buildings and programs. Often, however, because of limited local resources, this maximum effort is not enough. The state, then, exercises its prerogative, a right not understood by many. Local control of education is delegated by the state; therefore, this power can be modified, increased, or withdrawn at its discretion. When this occurs, there is often upheaval.

Many administrators of secondary schools, particularly those who serve in small rural areas, must cope with the issues brought into play when pressures from the state for improvement run counter to the wishes of people in their localities. When this happens, on what grounds can stands be taken? Perceptive administrators will need sensitivity to understand and interpret the issues involved, since there is no magic size, financial, or communication formula guaranteed to work in any given situation.

Many more issues of this nature are with us today, and others are sure to come. To the administrator for whom problems are challenges, these will not be burrs in the saddle. Instead, they will be spurs to his imagination as he works resourcefully to provide optimum learning environments for secondary school youngsters.

Traditional Organizational Plans

Eight-four and 6-3-3 organizational plans are no longer the only alternatives. New plans, conceived in the exigencies of mounting and shifting school populations, have added to our understanding that organization is a servant of man and not his master. For instance, one school system housed first graders in a senior high school while a new elementary building was being constructed. The experiment worked so well that the high school principal was reluctant to see them leave at the end of the year.

Imaginative plans will be needed, then, for many years to come, to organize existing and new facilities for increasing numbers of youngsters for whom mobility is a standard way of life. As a member of the administrative team, the secondary school principal will be called upon to make careful forecasts of needs in terms of personnel, space, and teaching ma-

terials. His thinking will make a contribution to the understanding of organizational flexibility.

GROUPING FOR EFFECTIVE LEARNING. Heterogeneity and homogeneity are again at the door of most secondary schools. Undue delay in making decisions, while a value position is being considered, is ludicrous and unwise. Here, questions seem best to be answered in terms of needs and other characteristics of the student body involved, the community in which the school is located, the society's present and future needs, the staff involved, and numbers of other factors. A knowledge of clear objectives, a consciousness of the values of research, and a willingness to try new approaches are needed. To refuse homogeneity because it is undemocratic represents a naive concept of democracy. To discard heterogeneity because it is an inefficient way to induce learning is pedagogical dogma. As with so many things, leadership by the secondary school administrator continues to be needed to find out what is the best method of learning.

DEPARTMENTALIZATION. There are those who believe that departmentalization in the secondary school is no longer an effective or efficient pattern of organization. Again, we choose not to debate the departmentalization-self-contained classroom question. The administrator must exert leadership in seeking the values in these and other ways of organizing for effective learning. It is not likely that one best method will be found, tooled, and then placed in the hands of all who teach. Again, it is a matter of finding the best mixture, from the available resources, for the problem at hand.

Expanding Enrollments

When the onrush is seen from afar, a sandbagging operation sometimes is appropriate, and it sometimes works. In education, though, the problem is to capture the potential. New sluiceways, expanded areas, and additional ways to harness the power are needed. Orientation and articulation activities are needed, as never before, to facilitate the flow of productive learning. Knowing that new experiences call forth mistakes, fears, and inefficiency, secondary school administrators must have in readiness those programs that best will absorb the waves of elementary youngsters during the coming years. If this were solely a numerical problem it would be difficult enough to solve. In the majority of cases, however, these youngsters will be coming from self-contained classrooms to departmentalized ones, and this will add one more variable to the problem.

OPTIMUM USE OF FACILITIES. With increased enrollments, the administrator is called upon to make the best use of physical facilities. In some districts there will be double sessions, lengthened school days, and perhaps more use of the four-quarter system. These may be necessary, and conceivably may represent organizational flexibility with real educational values accruing. If they must be tried, they should be tried open-mindedly, experimentally. Schools often have not been in a competitive position in the past, and they perhaps have not been called upon to develop creative approaches. For years to come, however, the schools will be competing with other agencies for funds. Increased services, more efficient use of facilities, imaginative skills in communication, all can put education in a better competitive position.

Expansion, mobility, and the demand for better education will lead to continued school district reorganization, with hundreds of new secondary schools. In many of these districts the secondary school will be in a tactical position to exert a cohesive influence. If it is true that the high school is often a community image, the place in which new aspirations can be hammered out and articulated, the secondary school administrator is in an excellent position to exert real leadership. The need for establishing the reorganized school requires evidence, for there are often those in the community who do not accept the necessity for reorganization. Too, the administrator needs to demonstrate his own personal contribution, for before reorganization many smaller schools do not have a full-time administrator, and having one may be regarded as waste.

MOBILITY. Yet another challenge is found in the mobility factor itself. Traditionally, families that moved did so in the summertime. Now, and in the foreseeable future, this process will occur constantly. The problems of mobility cannot be solved by the individual school. Through professional organizations and state departments of education, uniformities that will facilitate the meaningful reporting of pupil data as the student moves from district to district can be developed. Guidance services can be strengthened at the local level to expedite the adjustment of these students and a diagnosis of their unique learning problems. There is an increasing amount of research concerning the problems produced by transient or migratory youngsters in the schools. This should be studied with care by the secondary school administrator and those teachers especially affected by the problem. Schools where mobility is a considerable factor should participate in the research program and report findings to the

profession. The alert administrator can profit, too, by watching to see if the mobility takes any predictable course. In several cases, for instance, principals have found that a high percentage of incoming students migrated from one particular out-of-state locality. In one instance, school personnel visited that locality, talked with local school people, and worked out some agreements that eased problems considerably.

The Curriculum

The history of secondary education reveals that the curriculum has been a long-standing battleground. Critics view the secondary school product in terms of their values, and he is judged good, bad, or indifferent accordingly. At the present time, the secondary schools are under watchful scrutiny. This is a healthy state of affairs, for evaluation is vital to the life of any organization. The secondary school administrator can work most productively in this period of stress on the curriculum by keeping a sense of calmness, as well as a sense of humor, in raising such questions as "What is the issue?" "What are our objectives?" "What is the evidence?" and by anticipating the problems.

At present there is considerable concern about the able student in the secondary school. Is he being challenged sufficiently? Are his talents being channeled in the right directions? There is spirited competition for the academically talented that places a value question squarely in the laps of the secondary schools. None but the naive imagines that the school only nurtures, not creates, interest in vocations. Just how actively the secondary schools are to serve as an agent of society in this respect has not been determined as yet, however. Little imagination is required to envision the possibility of so gearing our educational program that "needed" interest could be stimulated. The line between preparing the student for a vocation and allowing for a reasonable area of free choice often is a very thin one. This is a value question of considerable importance. Here, too, the secondary school administrator finds a challenge in working with the community, the staff, and the student on the issue.

Another curriculum issue is the role of general and specialized education in the secondary school. With the increasing cost and complexity of specialized education, many are suggesting that the schools concentrate on presenting general educational offerings. Technological change occurs so rapidly, these people argue, that the schools can never hope to stay abreast of it. Specialized training can, therefore, be taught most profitably

by business and industry. This, then, would free the schools to concentrate on the development of core learnings. This question has fascinating ramifications and is of sufficient importance to stimulate the resourceful secondary school administrator for many years to come.

Of fundamental importance is the challenge to secondary school administrators in the broad area of curriculum development. If significant work on the curriculum is to be done, it will occur because the principal manifests an interest in it and gives it leadership. With the surge of youngsters hitting the secondary schools in the years to come, an almost unparalleled opportunity exists for these schools to prove their ability to develop a suitable curriculum.

CONDITIONS ENHANCING CAREER CHOICE

There are strong reasons for the secondary school administrator to consider his position as a career choice. Let us consider some of the conditions that create this situation.

New Role on the Administrative Team

The administration of larger school districts is infinitely more complex than it has previously been. The days are gone when administration was essentially a one-man job, the province of the superintendent. The teaching-principal, particularly at the secondary school level, is a vanishing phenomenon. The position of the principal has become a full-time position demanding leadership vital to the over-all operation of the school district. Increasingly, secondary school principals are called upon to play a key role in forecasting and developing budgets, in making and administering policy, in assisting in the selection and orientation of new personnel, and in exerting forceful leadership in the continuous development of curriculum. These roles, in addition to the ones traditionally associated with the position, demand leadership from those who see a career in the position.

Administrative councils are a growing phenomenon, and many superintendents have been heard to remark that the secondary school principal is a key man in the operation, for he can make or break the school's reputation. In that council operation, then, the principal must be the district's specialist in the problems of secondary school education, at least on a broad base.

The Secondary School in a Larger Setting

When school districts are reorganized, a wider, more changing community usually is represented by the school. In many of these communities growth is taking place at a phenomenal rate. Secondary schools that served well the smaller, stabler community, if they face the implications of their growth, now have many new needs. New elements move into older communities and either bring new problems or new aspirations or encounter difficulties in adapting to resident values in the community. The school has an obligation to keep a finger at the pulse of these changing communities if a program is to be offered to facilitate cohesion rather than disintegration. Secondary school administrators must provide impetus to the inquiry necessary to stay abreast of sociological change.

Increased Professional Criteria

Educators in general are seriously concerned with upgrading their own profession. In 1959, superintendents voted to establish two years of graduate study as a criterion for membership in their professional organization, the American Association of School Administrators. Placement officers are reporting requests for administrators with "work beyond the master's degree." Certification patterns are being revised at the state level to make mandatory work in general administration, secondary school administration, supervision, the curriculum, the school in the social order, and human growth and development. Increasing evidence exists, therefore, that secondary school administrators who have, in addition to the traditional skills, administrative skills, a broadly based education, and demonstrable ability in the area of human relations, are in demand.

Salary Pattern

Increased leadership expectations have led to increased salaries for secondary school administrators. One of the most important reasons for this is a realization of the increased responsibility of the position. In addition, the position is increasingly established on a ten-and-one-half, eleven, or eleven-and-one-half months' basis. These are hopeful signs. The secondary school administrator must continue to be his own best emissary in the drive for increased professionalization of administrative salaries. This will happen as he resourcefully and diligently provides evidence of his personal contribution, as one who by his leadership evokes the best efforts possible from those with whom he has the responsibility to work.

New Challenges in Articulation

For some time to come, the secondary school will continue to represent society's last opportunity to provide formal educational opportunities for the majority of its young people. Articulation represents a still virtually new tool whose power we do not fully comprehend. Superficially, the word has been used as a synonym for orientation. There is something deeper in articulation, however, than orientation devices, although these are important. Articulation is concerned with the promotion of understanding about the objectives of an education to the level that it leads to a personal commitment to make the most of educational opportunities. This is idealistic, yet it exists in the consciousness of many, many secondary school students. Understanding of this phenomenon must be increased. Herein, too, there is challenge for the secondary school administrator—to help create an atmosphere in which maximum growth can take place for maximum numbers of youngsters.

NEW SKILLS NEEDED

Increased autonomy is frequently bewildering. The administration of a secondary school where policy essentially is established at a higher level requires skill, to be sure; to administer a school and to have at the same time major responsibilities in policy development, the recommendation of personnel for employment, and development and evaluation of the curriculum, demands top-flight leadership. The latter are but some of the implications of autonomy, and they are worthy of some sober reflection. With the increasing size and complexity of school districts, component schools in the districts will have both broad common purposes and unique specific ones if they are to serve well the needs of diverse attendance units. Principals in these schools will require sociological skills to uncover and understand these needs and to translate them into program. With the secondary school representing the largest of the attendance units in most of these districts, the challenge to its administrator does not need to be belabored.

Larger Specialized Staffs

As secondary schools continue to grow in size and complexity, the growth will be reflected in increased staff specialization. Whereas in many schools the administrator will continue to function as a generalist, a significant

challenge in and of itself, in many other schools additional administrative staff, guidance personnel, remedial reading and other types of specialists will be added. These additional staff members will lengthen the service arm of the school. They can best accomplish their purposes if the way has been paved, *organizationally*, prior to the establishment of the new function, and if effective coordination follows. Many a principal has been delighted at the prospect of acquiring a specialist, only to find out that "something has gone wrong." Most frequently what has gone wrong is that inadequate preparation was made for the new service, its function was not clearly understood, and staff confusion and suspicion led to decreased effectiveness, rather than to the anticipated increased effectiveness. Increased organizational skills, therefore, will be needed by tomorrow's administrators. Lines of communication need to be clear; time needs to be found for *coordinating, reporting, and evaluating sessions*; purposes need to be clearly understood, and delegation needs to be sharply defined if optimum working relationships are to exist.

Skills of Perspective

Unparalleled technological developments and swift-moving social and political currents make for the kinds of uncertainties that cause otherwise able people to look for quick solutions in their quests for some security. At such times, pressures mount for school curriculum panaceas. Transfer of training regains its respectability. Often there is a desire to re-establish the type of school that existed when life was *more serene and stable*, implying a direct cause-and-effect relationship, or there is an urging to forge ahead into the technological horizons and to reflect in the curriculum that which best will prepare students to meet current demands. At such times *stable heads are required to bring into sharp focus what the role of the school should be in the social order*. Here, too, is a challenge of considerable magnitude for secondary school administrators in the upcoming years.

Leadership in Staff Development Programs

There is increased realization that educators grow in competence throughout their entire careers. This has taken a more systematic turn, recently, in the growth of staff development programs. There are at least two components of these programs. The first of these manifests itself in inservice activities that are designed to add to the professional understandings

principal, for example, might announce in staff meeting that his "door is always open," and yet discover that few ever pass through it to discuss professional or personal concerns. This will happen only if he is approachable, if he demonstrates an ability to discuss problems open-mindedly, and if he sees that something is done about the problem once it is discussed. Thus, tremendous challenge exists in the area of communications for the secondary school administrator.

POST SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES

In hundreds of communities, secondary schools are extending their services beyond the accustomed scope; and each extension contains its challenge for the administrator. The last period of the day is often a signal for preparations to be made for night school or for branch college classes. Graduation in May or June brings an end to one program and marks the beginning of another—the summer school program. Whether or not the secondary school principal serves as the administrator of these programs, they at least require planning and coordinating activities on his part. Since a continued expansion of these programs is likely, a brief analysis of their implications seems appropriate.

Specialized Terminal Education

Many jobs that exist in our specialized technological society require special preparation, *although not preparation of sufficient scope or depth to justify a full college program*. For example, many engineers today are required to do things that could be performed better by trained technicians. There is a renewed interest, therefore, in the establishment of terminal educational opportunities, under the control of local boards of education, that represent upward extensions of the regular secondary school program. Since in many cases these require the use of secondary school facilities, the secondary school administrator is called upon for cooperative activity, *often at the very important level of helping to assess the need for the program*.

University and College Offerings

As the pressure of expanding enrollments continues to be felt in higher education, those institutions increasingly will turn to the public secondary

creased service, again, requires the leadership that results when a challenge is sensed.

Untapped Potentials

Many school districts use a continuous census to ascertain how many students will appear at certain predictable times. Very few, however, use a continuous census of graduates or drop-outs to facilitate educational planning. There is considerable promise for the growth of this practice, for those who have used it report excellent dividends. It is an additional finger on the pulse of the curriculum, providing clues on needed progress development and insights into how retention rates can be kept as high as possible.

Another promising device is the community survey. Valuable data can be secured from a carefully constructed questionnaire. Several have been developed as a result of interdisciplinary research involving sociologists and educational administrators. An example of these is the Bullock Questionnaire, which yields measures of a community philosophy of education and other such helpful data.¹

The resourceful administrator, then, who is alert to the research potentials at his doorstep, can do a great deal to make the secondary school he serves reflect, in a very sensitive way, the needs and aspirations of the community.

ASSOCIATIONAL INVOLVEMENT

Because of the many local demands on his time, the secondary school administrator can fall prey to provincialism. To keep the problems of the profession in broad focus, expanded associational involvement can be particularly rewarding.

Regional Study Groups

Regional principals associations have long existed, and many worthwhile projects have been undertaken by them. Often, however, a normative approach has been taken in reference to common problems and common solutions to them. A more recent and very significant development has been the emphasis of these associations on the problems of leadership.

¹ Robert P. Bullock, *School-Community Attitude Analysis for Educational Administrators*, School-Community Development Study Monograph Series No. 7 (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Press, 1959).

Thus, administrators have confronted the problem of their own professional growth. For example, members of regional study groups have role-played the staff appraisal conference, analyzed their responsibilities in inservice programs, and in many other ways held their own positions up to careful scrutiny. There is considerable promise in these activities for they are the earmarks of a profession involved in upgrading itself.

State and National Involvements

Valuable as regional associations may be, when professional advancement on a broader base is considered, state and national efforts are required. Inherent in the obligations a secondary school administrator assumes with his position should be the participation in the activities of his state organization and of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Not only are the publications of these organizations a link with the problems and issues of his profession; more importantly, membership enables him to take an active part in making policy and in determining lines of development. These state and national organizations have programs of considerable variety. Particularly important are their professional relations, legislative, and research committees. Those who work in these activities come in contact with others who have comparable interests, and the work they stimulate is often of considerable importance.

One example of such cooperative activity is the Ohio Council for the Advancement of Educational Administration. Many organizations and institutions, including the Ohio Association of Secondary School Administrators, are members of this council. By mutual effort, then, and a pooling of resources, research is stimulated. Continued involvement in state and national professional organizations is clearly a most promising way for secondary school administrators to work toward goals vital to professional growth.

secondary school principals and others, such as counselors, are invited to campuses for conferences with former students. Information from these sessions is taken home, discussed with staff members, and put into the program to facilitate articulation between secondary school and college. Vertically organized associations in the subject-matter areas contain members from both secondary school and college staffs. Problems associated with continuous learning in these areas are discussed to the mutual profit of both groups. Advanced placement programs, which permit the capable student, as an individual, to profit from close attention to his unique abilities and needs, have also been developed between secondary schools and colleges.

These are but a few of the ways in which progress has been made with this problem. Much can be done in the future through continued cooperative effort of the secondary schools and institutions of higher learning. For example, the development of a standard transcript form would be of tremendous help to the secondary schools. Joint conferences of college and secondary school counseling staffs would permit a communications link that would benefit the work of both groups. Increased information to secondary schools about the availability of scholarships and about the mechanics involved in applying for them would also be beneficial. These and many more worthwhile projects can be accomplished if secondary school administrators keep alert to the problems of the able student and exert some vigorous leadership to bring needed projects to fruition.

RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

Perhaps the most exciting challenge of all awaiting those who choose a career in secondary school administration lies in the vast research possibilities. This is especially so if research is defined broadly as the trying and evaluating of new ways of solving problems. Confronted with issues of real magnitude, it is the applied spirit of inquiry that will enable us to meet them with imaginative solutions.

Those who function as secondary school administrators in the future will not necessarily be skilled researchers, for research is a discipline in itself. A sensitivity to research possibilities, a willingness to experiment, and an understanding of the ways in which research assistance can be secured is a far more realistic goal for which to strive. Experience has

indicated that this pattern is desirable in many phases of administration, school law and finance for example.

There are some very practical ways in which research can be undertaken cooperatively. In most state departments of education, colleges, universities, and laboratory schools there are research specialists skilled in design, appraisal, and other methodological aspects of inquiry. One of their major requirements is an action laboratory, however, in which to conduct their work. The schools can be that laboratory, provided lines of cooperation can be established; and quite frankly, those lines can be established only if there is administrative initiative and willingness to experiment. In this way, a team approach to research can be established, with each unit making the kind of contribution that it best can bring to the effort.

The secondary school administrator, for example, after initial arrangements have been made for a cooperative research project, might be required to arrange for necessary space and other facilities needed in the experimentation, to schedule participating personnel so that they are available at certain places at certain times, and to handle many of the other coordinating jobs that arise when people work together. Staff members who have the interest and special abilities required in the research effort need to be selected. In general, the administrator can do much to create a research environment through his own enthusiasm, by encouraging staff members to try new approaches and to report progress to the others in staff meetings and in the professional periodicals. He can supply references and make them available through bulletins, discussions in staff meetings, and the school's professional library. He can assist by helping to procure needed equipment for trying instruction in new ways. He can aid in developing an understanding on the part of the community that better education can result from research effort. This understanding is often vital to build up the kind of effort required for meaningful experimentation.

The research opportunities in the secondary schools are legion for the inquisitive and resourceful. The following are but a few that seem particularly promising.

Group Experimentation

Carefully controlled experimentation is needed to determine the effects of grouping for different kinds of learning experiences. There are, of course, many variables that exert their effect on the learning process. For

meaningful research on the grouping questions, these variables have to be accounted for by carefully controlled research procedures, or the results obtained in group "experiments" have very limited value. Obviously, if variables are not controlled, we cannot determine what factor or combination of factors cause certain results of the learning experience. Until we know with greater precision what factors help to bring what results, grouping cannot be done with the accuracy demanded of real professional performance. Then, too, as we add to our understandings of the effects of grouping, we add to our knowledge of meaningful criteria to be used as a basis of selection. This will permit far more efficiency in the teaching-learning process.

Organizational Studies

Promising signs of organizational flexibility have cropped up in many secondary schools. Some of these were brought together in 1956 with the development of the thought-provoking *Random Falls* plan.² This plan served as a stimulus to the organizational possibilities that exist in the field of secondary education. The possibilities need to be tried further, evaluated, modified, reported, and tried again under different sets of circumstances before our understandings of organization can be broadened.

In addition to exploring existing literature on organizational flexibility, each secondary school administrator can ask himself questions such as the following: Have we tried anything different recently in regard to the way we organize for learning? What kinds of learning problems do we have, and might we organize any differently to cope with them more successfully? What can be said for and against the homeroom period, the large study hall? Do we have a systematic way of handling our guidance services? Are certain courses better adapted to handling large and small groups of students in terms of the values we hope to promote, and how do we know about this? How well do we know the individual student and his unique learning needs?

Secondary school administrators, as they ponder these and other organizational problems, need not feel hamstrung by brick-and-mortar limitations. The schools they administer might be as traditionally constructed as can be imagined, but organizational flexibility exists first as a state of mind. When the administrator is convinced that some experi-

² Archibald B. Shaw and John Lyon Reid, "The Random Falls Idea," *School Executive*, March 1956, pp. 47-86.

mentation is worthwhile, he will find ways to try new approaches, no matter how many physical barriers seem to exist.

Staffing Research

How do we know what potential exists in a secondary school staff for promoting an optimum environment for learning? This seemingly innocent question has a host of implications behind it. Consider the way in which staff assignment often is made in the secondary school. The teacher's major and minor fields are noted, and an assignment, in the larger schools, is made on the basis of whatever vacancies exist. The teacher often stays where first assigned, frequently for many years. In smaller schools, the teacher is often asked to serve in from four to six areas, clustering about two broad headings, such as English and social studies, but not necessarily so if shortages exist. How often are realignments made on the basis of a reassessment of the new staff picture and existing curriculum needs? How frequently are teachers approached about their possible interest in shifting from their major to their minor fields for a year, for whatever possible stimulation the change might contain? These questions concern only the classroom teaching aspect of the problem of potential. There are other questions that can be raised that pertain to different ramifications of the problem of potential. Which teachers are particularly capable in course selection guidance? Who works, or could work, ably with the gifted, the dull normal, the emotionally unstable child? Who is particularly adept at taking responsibility and evoking solid, critical thinking from others? These, and similar questions, need to be answered by the secondary school administrator if he is to use organizational skills to employ his staff imaginatively and productively.

Trial-and-error answers to these questions are not sufficient. Research in staff personnel can provide sound answers if the necessary effort is made.

Value Studies

What really are the basic needs of mature, productive, responsible people in our society today? What will they be tomorrow? What is the relationship of those needs to the basic values by which we need to live in a democratic society? What are the ways in which those values best can be inculcated in secondary school youngsters, so that they can see real purpose in acquiring them to enhance their current living and the living they will

experience as adults? How can we keep alive the sense of excitement and adventure that characterizes the learning of young children?

The case cannot rest on adult values and deferred satisfactions. Further, youngsters themselves cannot call the learning tune in terms of their current recognized needs. An artfully developed mixture still needs to be found, and considerable research effort will have to be exerted in the search.

Communications Studies

Secondary schools, with their increased size and complexity in the future, will have a correspondingly greater communications problem. Certainly the administrator will have far less opportunity than he now has for face-to-face relationships with students, staff members, and citizens in the school community. Lacking these opportunities, how can the channels be kept open, permitting a two-way flow? What are the most effective ways in which the many media can be used? When the written message is used, *is there evidence that the message accomplished its purpose?* What are the values of handbooks, the public address system, written policy? What ways are available to relate effectively to the parents, if there are 500 or 1000 students in the secondary school? *How can parents express their concerns to the school?* How can the community and school speak together about purposes, effectiveness, aspirations?

Communications, then, with its *almost infinite complexities*, beckons the inquiring mind who would search for the better way.

CONCLUSION

Yes, challenges exist in abundance for the person who finds excitement in working with people and experiences the thrill of helping them find solutions to their problems. To the secondary school administrator who feels that the *teenage youngster and those who work with him in the teaching-learning situation* represent the most challenging and rewarding people with whom he can work, a career awaits that demands the best he can give.

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